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ELEMENTS

OF

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CHEMISTRY;

CONTAINING THE

PRINCIPLES OF THE SCIENCE,

BOTH

EXPERIMENTAL AND THEORETICAL.

INTENDED AS A TEXT-BOOK FOR ACADEMIES, HIGH SCHOOLS, AND COLLEGES.

ILLUSTRATED WITH NUMEROUS ENGRAVINGS.

BY ALONZO GRAY, A.M.

PROFESSOR OF CHEMISTRY, NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, AND NATURAL HISTORY IN THE BROOKLYN FEMALE ACADEMY, NEW YORK.

FORTIETH EDITION, NEWLY REVISED, AND GREATLY ENLARGED.

PREFACE

In compiling the first edition of this work, the author attempted to prepare a text-book which should be well fitted for *elementary instruction*. Most of the works on chemistry appeared to him to be either too profound, on the one hand, for those who were just commencing the study, or too superficial, on the other, for those who wished to obtain a scientific knowledge of the subject.

The design was to avoid these two extremes, and combine the *scientific* with the *popular* and *useful* parts of the subject. The rapid sale of the first edition, and its introduction into several colleges, have led to the inference that the attempt has not been wholly unsuccessful. The author has therefore been induced to revise and enlarge the work, and put it into a permanent form. A large amount of matter, and numerous engravings, have been added, for the purpose of rendering the work better adapted to academies and other schools.

It is believed that greater success would attend the efforts of teachers in this branch of science, if more attention were given to the *principles* of chemistry, and less to its details. The fundamental principles being thoroughly understood by the student, he is prepared to attend to the *details* with greater pleasure and success, as he will be able to connect the effects with their appropriate causes.

Under the influence of this belief, the author has given a greater prominence to the imponderable agents and the thir-

teen non-metallic substances, than to other parts of the work Most of the illustrations and experiments are introduced in this part, so as to present and illustrate the philosophy of chemical combinations, and the general nature of the compounds thus formed ; in other words, the causes of chemical changes and the mode of studying them.

By the introduction of numerous experiments and illustrations, the object has been to give to the work a *practical* character, so that the teacher, with a very simple apparatus, and with limited means, may be able to give numerous experimental illustrations to his classes. The importance of studying chemistry experimentally, is admitted by all ; and to aid teachers in constructing the more simple forms of apparatus, many notes and drawings have been added, and experiments described, which may easily be performed by those who are not privileged with more costly and extensive means of illustration.

In the arrangement of the imponderable agents, the phenomena of common and voltaic electricity, electro-magnetism, and magneto-electricity, are classed as effects of one agent — *electricity.*

In the arrangement of the simple substances, the *logical order* has been adopted ; that is, each *simple substance* is described, and then its combinations with those only which have been previously described ; so that only one substance with which the pupil is unacquainted is presented at a time. This classification appears to be the most convenient for presenting the different compounds, and less liable than any other to confuse the mind of the learner. This order, however, has been adopted only with the simple substances and their binary compounds.

The salts occupy a separate chapter, in the arrangement of which Turner's Chemistry has been made the basis Several new salts, and one entire family, — the *silicates*, — nave been added.

The chapter on Organic Chemistry has been entirely re-written, and the whole very much enlarged, exhibiting the new views contained in the works of Kane, Graham, and Fownes—to which works, for further details, the student is referred.

The chapter on Analytical Chemistry has been considerably enlarged; but the methods of analysis have become so accurate, the details so minute, and the processes so complicated, that those who would obtain a full mastery of the subject, must consult works which treat particularly of chemical analysis. Sufficient only has been inserted to give the pupil some idea of the nature of the processes, and to enable him to *test*, if not actually to *analyze*, the substances which are mentioned.

The Glossary of chemical terms has been selected from that prepared by Daniell, of London, and adapted to this work. The table of contents has been much enlarged, and a complete analysis of the work presented, in the form of topics, which are intended to be used instead of questions; the topics being so arranged that, when the teacher suggests one, the pupil may give a complete description of it. This plan, it is believed, will prevent the evils incident to direct questions, while it will secure all their advantages.

Chemical formulæ have been extensively adopted. This appears highly important, especially for those who intend to become thorough students in the science. The notation, (the use of symbolical language,) to express, in a condensed form, complicated chemical changes, seems to be as useful in chemistry as in algebra, and, although these symbols may be unintelligible to the common reader, he who will thoroughly study them will find them the most efficient aid to a clear, definite, and easy comprehension of the whole science.

In the description of the ponderable bodies, brevity has

been consulted, as far as was consistent with perspicuity The illustrations and descriptions are much more extended in the first two hundred pages than in other parts of the work. The method of description which is employed in natural history has been adopted, where the subject did not require a more popular style. By this means, and by using different kinds of type, a large amount of matter has been condensed into a small compass, while, at the same time, that which is more important to be studied is rendered conspicuous. Many subjects of minor importance are only alluded to, and reference frequently made to more extensive works.

The sources from which most of the materials have been drawn, are the works of Turner, Graham, Kane, and Fownes. Other works have been consulted, and also many original papers in the scientific journals of the day; and it is confidently believed, that in the recent revision of the work no important discovery has been omitted.

A. G.

BROOKLYN SEMINARY,
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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION.

PART FIRST.

IMPONDERABLE AGENTS.

CHAPTER I. — CALORIC.

Effects of Free Caloric.

Sect. 2. Insensible Caloric.

Effects of Insensible Caloric.

Sect. 3. Sources of Caloric and of Cold.

Sect. 4. Nature of Caloric.

CHAPTER II.— LIGHT.

CHAPTER III.— ELECTRICITY.

Sect. 1. Common Electricity.

Sect. 2. Voltaic Electricity, or Galvanism.

PART SECOND.

CHEMICAL AFFINITY.

Circumstances which modify Affinity.

PART THIRD,

PONDERABLE BODIES.

CHAPTER I. — CHEMICAL SUBSTANCES.

CLASS I. NON-METALLIC ELEMENTS AND THEIR PRIMARY COMPOUNDS.

SECT. 1. OXYGEN.

SECT. 2. CHLORINE.

SECT. 3. IODINE.

SECT. 4. BROMINE.

SECT. 5. FLUORINE.

SECT. 6. HYDROGEN.

Sect. 7. Nitrogen.

Sect. 8. Carbon.

Sect. 9. Sulphur.

SECT. 10.   PHOSPHORUS.

SECT. 11.   BORON.

SECT. 12.   SELENIUM.

SECT. 13.   SILICON.

CHAPTER II.

CLASS II.   METALS, WITH THEIR   BINARY COMPOUNDS.

ORDER I.   *Metals which, by Oxidation, yield Alkalies or Earth*

SECT. 1.   METALLIC BASES OF THE ALKALIES.

Sect. 2. Metallic Bases of the Alkaline Earths.

Sect. 3. Metallic Bases of the Earths.

Order II. *Metals the Oxides of which are neither Alkalies nor Earths.*

Sect. 1. Metals which decompose Water at a red Heat.

CHAPTER III.

CLASS III.—SALTS OR SECONDARY COMPOUNDS.

SECT. 1. CRYSTALLIZATION.

SECT. 2. OXY-SALTS.

CHAPTER IV.—ORGANIC CHEMISTRY.

SECT. 1. AMYLACEOUS SUBSTANCES.

SECT. 2. COMPOUND RADICALS.

CHAPTER VI.—ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY. •

NOTE.

F. and Fahr. for Fahrenheit's thermometer.—T. refers to Turner's Chemistry.—
W. to Webster's Chemistry, 3rd Ed.—L. to Liebig.—B. to Berzelius.—Eq. and Equiv,
for Equivalent.—Symb. for Symbol or formula.

INTRODUCTION.

SCIENCE is classified knowledge. Physical or Natural Science is the knowledge of the material world. The definition of matter embraces two properties, without which we cannot even conceive of its existence. These properties are *extension*, which includes length, breadth, and thickness, and *impenetrability*, or the impossibility that any two portions of matter should occupy the same space. There are other properties, which do not necessarily enter into our conception of matter, but which universally belong to it, such as gravitation, inertia, mobility, etc.

Natural Science consists of three great branches, which are characterized chiefly by peculiar methods of investigation.

I. NATURAL PHILOSOPHY employs the method of *general physics;* that is, it observes, for example, the gravitation of a stone let fall to the ground, and, neglecting the other properties of the stone, observes the same property in other bodies, and *generalizes* the phenomena under a law. It is therefore conversant with general laws, but not with all the general laws, for its observation is restricted to the *phenomena of perceptible distance.* By this we mean that it leaves to the chemist all those phenomena which arise from the action of the invisible atoms of matter upon each other, and attends only to those which belong to bodies of perceptible size. With a few observations and experiments for data, it depends for discovery upon *calculation*, and its character is therefore eminently mathematical. Its object is a knowledge of the laws of motions and forces.

II. CHEMISTRY employs, in part, the method of *general physics*, *and*, in part, the method of *particular physics*. By the latter, we mean that its object is, in part, to describe particular bodies or substances, by giving an account of the various properties of each one, before calling the attention to another. It invites our attention to the phenomena only of *imperceptible distance*. With some aid from calculation and observation, it depends for discovery chiefly upon *experiment*, and has therefore been called Experimental Philosophy. Its object is a knowledge of the constitution of substances and of the phenomena attending a change of constitution.

III. NATURAL HISTORY employs the method of *particular physics*, observes the phenomena of *perceptible distance*, and depends for discovery chiefly upon *observation*, with some aid from experiment and calculation. Its object is a knowledge of natural objects. It embraces Zoölogy, or the study of animals; Botany, or the study of plants; Mineralogy, which treats of minerals; and Geology, which describes and accounts for the condition of the crust of the earth. The physiology of plants and animals is sometimes referred to Botany and Zoölogy respectively, and sometimes regarded as a fourth distinct branch of Natural Science.

Plan of the Work.

I. The constitution and the changes of the constitution of substances are intimately connected with the agency of heat, light, electricity, and galvanism, of which the two last-mentioned agents are supposed to be identical. Whether these agents are themselves substances, or mere properties of matter, is not certainly known. They have no appreciable weight, and are therefore called *imponderable agents*. They will form the subject of the First Part.

II. The Second Part will treat of *chemical affinity*. This is the great agent to which all the phenomena of chemistry are referred. It is distinguished from gravitation by exerting its force between the particles of bodies, and from cohesion by

acting only between particles of *different kinds* or in different states of electricity. For example, a block of marble is made up of very small particles, each one of which is similar to the whole; but each of these particles is *composed* of two others, carbonic acid and lime, different from each other, and from marble. When these particles of carbonic acid and lime are brought into close proximity to each other, they assume different electrical states, and combine by the force of *chemical affinity*, and form particles of marble. Cohesion then attaches them to each other as fast as formed, and thus the block is formed. Gravity acts upon it in the mass. The carbonic acid and the lime are called the *component* particles. When these combine, they form the *integrant* particles. Hence Chemistry is defined to be that science the object of which is, to examine the relations which *affinity* establishes between bodies, ascertain with precision the nature and constitution of the compounds it produces and determine the laws by which ts action is regulated.

It is the object of Natural Philosophy to examine the sensible motions and mutual relations of bodies in masses, consequent upon *gravity*.

Chemistry investigates the constitution and qualities of bodies as they stand related to *chemical* affinity.

III. The Third Part will comprise a description of substances, which will be arranged in two general divisions : The first will embrace the elements and those compound substances which can be formed in the laboratory. These are chemical substances. The second division will embrace natural substances, or animal and vegetable compounds, which have been formed by natural agencies.

Chemists divide substances into simple and compound. A simple substance is one which never has been separated into two kinds of matter, or which has never been decomposed. There are about fifty-eight simple substances. A compound body is one which is composed of two or more simple bodies, of which there are many thousands.

The composition of bodies is ascertained by two methods;

1. By separating the body into its simple elements, which is called *analysis ;* and,

2. By causing the elements to combine and form the body, which is called *synthesis.*

Chemical substances are arranged in three general divisions :

I. Non-metallic elements, and their primary compounds with each other.

II. Metals, and their primary compounds.

III. Salts, or secondary compounds.

In the arrangement of the simple substances and their primary compounds, the logical order is pursued; that is, after describing one substance, the rest are described with the compounds which they form with those previously described

The Salts are divided into four orders :

I. *Oxy-salts,* or those salts the acid or base of which is an *oxidized* substance.

II. *Hydro-salts.* This order includes no salt, the acid or base of which does not contain *hydrogen.*

III. *Sulphur-salts,* or those salts, of which the electro-positive or electro-negative ingredient is a *sulphuret.*

IV. *Haloid-salts,* including none, the electro-positive or electro-negative ingredient of which is not *haloidal,* i, e,. analogous in composition to sea salt

CHEMISTRY.

PART I.

IMPONDERABLE AGENTS.

CHAPTER I. — CALORIC.

THE word *heat* has two meanings. It is the sensation which we experience when we touch a hot body; or it is the cause of the sensation. In the first sense, it is an effect produced only upon animals. In the second, it is the cause of a great variety of effects in the mineral, vegetable, and animal kingdoms. The word *caloric* (Lat. *calor*) is used in the latter sense. Where there can be no ambiguity, the word *heat* is often retained in the same sense. Caloric exists in a *free* or *sensible*, and in a *latent* or *insensible* state.

1. *Sensible Caloric.* In this state, caloric is capable of producing the sensation of heat, and of expanding bodies. It has sometimes been called the caloric of temperature. Temperature expresses the power of exciting the sensation, and is proportioned to the quantity of free caloric. A high temperature is owing to a great quantity, and a low temperature to a small quantity.

2. *Insensible Caloric.* In this condition, caloric produces no sensation, but exists, often in great quantity, in substances, without affecting their temperature, and appears to be combined with them.

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Sect. 1. Sensible Caloric.

Communication of Sensible Caloric.

The most important property of free caloric is its tendency to an equilibrium; that is, a tendency to escape from hotter to colder bodies, so as to produce in all the same degree of temperature. This communication takes place in two ways — by conduction, and by radiation.

I. *Conduction.* By this is meant the passage of caloric through a body, from particle to particle.

Experiment. Place bits of phosphorus along an iron rod, and apply heat to one end of it; the progress of the caloric will be indicated by its igniting the phosphorus.

The property in the body, on which this transmission depends, is called the *conducting power*.

If one end of an iron rod be held in the fire, the sensation of heat will soon be experienced at the other extremity, in consequence of the conduction of caloric from particle to particle along the rod. If the rod be of glass, it will be much longer before any heat is felt. Hence *different substances conduct caloric with different degrees of facility.*

If two bodies are in contact, caloric may be conducted from one to the other. The *more perfect* the contact, other things being equal, the more *rapid* the conduction. This is the reason why a heated body, when grasped firmly by the hand, will burn it more severely than when held loosely.

The contact of two solids with each other, or of a solid with a gas, is not so perfect as that of a solid with a liquid; and hence the communication is more rapid in the latter case. When liquids are mixed with liquids, or gases with gases, the contact is still more perfect, and the caloric is more rapidly diffused through the whole.

From the two facts which have been mentioned, it follows that *the rapidity of conduction from a heated to a cold body depends upon the conducting power of each substance, and the closeness of contact.*

Exp. Plunge a heated iron into cold water, and again, equally heated, into mercury. In the latter case, it will cool more rapidly; for, while the heat is conducted with equal facility in both cases from the interior to the surface, it is taken from the surface more rapidly by the mercury than by the water.

Exp. Plunge into mercury two equal balls, one of iron and the other of marble, heated to the same temperature. The iron ball will cool the more rapidly, because the caloric is more freely conducted from its interior to its surface.

Exp. Plunge the iron ball into mercury, and the marble into water. The iron will cool more rapidly, for two reasons; the heat will come to its surface more freely, and be taken off by the mercury more rapidly, iron and mercury being each better conductors than marble or water.

Of the different forms of matter, *solids* are better conductors of caloric than *liquids*, and liquids than *gases*.

1. *Conducting Power of Solids.* The power of solids to conduct caloric varies greatly in different substances.

This fact may be shown by the *conductometer*, (Fig. 1,) which consists of a tin or iron case, in which there may be inserted small solid cylinders of the same dimensions, but of different materials.

Fig. 1.

A
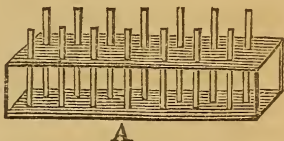
Exp. Place upon one end of each, bits of phosphorus, and apply to the other ends the same degree of heat by placing the case over boiling water. The caloric will be conducted along from one extremity of each to the other, and those substances which conduct most rapidly will first ignite the phosphorus.

According to the experiments of M. Despretz, if the conducting power of

Gold be represented by 1000			Tin	303.9
Silver will be	. . .	973	Lead . .	179.6
Copper	. . . .	898.2	Marble . .	23.6
Platinum .	. . . .	381	Porcelain .	12.2
Iron	. . . . .	374.3	Fine clay .	11.4
Zinc .	. . . . .	363		

Metals generally are the best conductors of caloric, while furs and porous substances are the poorest conductors.

The conducting power of stones is next to that of the metals, and crystalline stones are better conductors than those which are not crystallized.

The earths are very bad conductors of caloric. Bricks, glass, baked wood and charcoal, are still poorer; while silk, hair, feathers and down, have a less conducting power than any other class of solids.

Among the latter, *the finer the fibre, the less its conducting power.* Hence the utility of fine wool and furs in the winter, to prevent the escape of caloric from the body; while, in the summer, we select those substances for our clothing which have a coarser fibre. In this we see the benevolence of God in furnishing those animals which inhabit the colder regions of the earth with finer clothing than those which inhabit warm climates. The fur of animals is also finer in winter than in summer.

Snow and ice are poor conductors; and hence, by a wise constitution, the earth in winter is rarely frozen to any considerable depth. The ice and snow keep it warm by preventing its vital heat from escaping.

The conducting powers of solids are generally in the ratio of their densities. Thus if a piece of metal be rendered more dense by hammering, there will be an increase of its conducting power, and if its density be less, there will be a corresponding diminution of this power.

2. *Conducting Power of Liquids.* In liquids the conducting power is much less than in solids. So feeble is it, that some, among whom is Count Rumford, have denied its existence. But, notwithstanding the slight conducting power of liquids, heat can be diffused through them much more rapidly than through solids. This is effected by a motion among the particles, which brings them successively into contact with the heated surface.

Fig. 2.

If, for example, heat is applied to the bottom of a vessel of water, (Fig. 2,) those particles of water which are in contact with the bottom, are soon heated, and consequently expanded and made lighter, so that they are forced to rise, in order to give place to the heavier cold particles, which fall to the bottom. The latter, in turn, are heated, and give place to others; and thus the process continues until two currents are established, the one of heated particles rising to the surface, and the other of colder particles falling to the bottom. In this way all the water is soon heated by
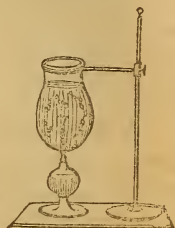
direct contact with the bottom.* A little powdered amber or gum copal, put into the water, will indicate the direction of the currents.

But if heat be applied to the top of the vessel, the water at the bottom will remain cold, while that at the top is boiling.

Fig. 3.

Exp. Suspend in a tin cup a hot cannon ball on the top of a jar of water, (Fig. 3,) at the bottom of which is a piece of ice. The water will boil rapidly at the top, while the ice remains unmelted. But if the ice is placed upon the top, and heat applied to the bottom, the ice will all be melted before the water can be made to boil.

Fig. 4.

Exp. Or, burn ether (Fig. 4) on the top of a glass funnel filled with water, into which an air thermometer is cemented. The thermometer will be but slightly affected. A ring of tin should be placed on the top of the water, within half an inch of the sides of the funnel. The ether, poured within this ring, will burn, without the risk of breaking the glass.

It has, however, been shown that liquids do conduct heat, independently of any intestine motion. But the power is very slight.

3. *Conducting Power of Gases.* Gases and vapors conduct heat very slightly, if at all. Liquids and gases are heated by a process called *convection.* The particles move easily upon each other, and are brought into direct contact with the heated surface, and *convey* away the heat.

II. *Radiation.* If a heated body be suspended in the air, its caloric will be diffused both by the currents of air, which circulate to and from its surface, (*convection,*) and by the conducting power of the air. But if the hand be placed beneath the heated body, a sensation of heat will be perceived, which is not due to either of these causes, but to the direct passage of the rays through the air.

For if a heated body be suspended in a vacuum, entirely removed from conducting substances, it will rapidly cool
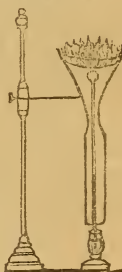
* A Florence flask, or a glass tube, may be used for this experiment, and the water heated by a common tin lamp filled with alcohol.

down to the same temperature with surrounding bodies
Caloric, which is thus thrown off from heated bodies in al
directions, like rays of light from the sun, is called *radian.
caloric.*

1. If a thermometer be placed at the distance of two
inches from a heated body, it will be affected but one fourth
as much as at the distance of one inch; if it be placed at the
distance of three inches, one ninth as much; if at four inches,
one sixteenth as much; at five inches, one twenty-fifth, etc.
Hence, in consequence of a radiation in all directions, *the
intensity of the heat is in the inverse ratio of the square of
the distance.* The intensity of light and the force of gravi-
tation follow the same law.

2. The *degree* of radiation, and consequently the *intensity*
of radiant heat, are greatly modified by the kind of surface.
Bright, polished surfaces do not radiate so rapidly as those
which are *dark* and *rough.*

Fig. 5.

Exp. Take a square
tin cup, *a*, (Fig. 5,) one
side of which is bright,
another rough, a third
painted black, and the
fourth painted white.
Fill it with hot water,
and bring an air ther-
mometer, *c*, near each
side. The rough and
black surfaces will
radiate more rapidly
than those which are
white and polished.

If the rays of caloric are brought to a focus by the mirror *b*, the dif
ferent degrees of caloric from the several surfaces will be much more
evident.*
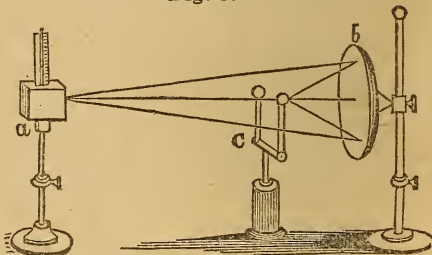
The greater radiating power of rough surfaces is supposed
to be due to the great number of radiating points; or perhaps

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* The late experiments of Melloni do not seem to confirm this view
By using a cup of marble, whose external surfaces were differently
prepared, the first polished, the second smooth but tarnished, the third
streaked in one direction, and the fourth in two, crossing each other at
right angles, and filling the vessel with hot water, each of the sides
projected the same quantity of radiant caloric. — *Edin. Philos. Jour*
XXVI. 299.

it may be owing to the greater amount of surface exposed within a given space.

3. The rapidity of radiation also depends upon the difference between the temperature of the radiating body and that of the surrounding bodies. Hence, with a given temperature of the latter, the higher the temperature of the radiating body, the more rapid the radiation.

III. *Disposition of radiant Caloric.* Radiant caloric passes in right lines through a vacuum, through air and gases, without any *apparent obstruction;* but when it falls upon solid or liquid substances, it is disposed of in three ways: 1. It rebounds from the surface, or is *reflected.* 2. It enters into the substance, or is *absorbed.* 3. It passes through the body, or is *transmitted.*

1. *Reflection of Caloric.* When radiant caloric falls upon bright, polished surfaces, it is mostly reflected in lines, which form angles with a perpendicular to the reflecting surface, equal to the angles formed by the same perpendicular, and the lines in which the rays went to the surface.

Thus, let BAC (Fig. 6) be a smooth surface, S the incident ray, P the perpendicular to the surface, and R the reflected ray. The angle RAP is equal to the angle PAS. The angle PAS is called the angle of incidence, and PAR the angle of reflection. Light follows the same law. If a concave surface be used, the rays of caloric will be reflected and brought to a focus. This may be shown by two metallic mirrors, as in Fig. 7. *a* and *b*

Fig. 6.
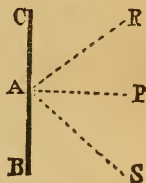
Fig. 7.
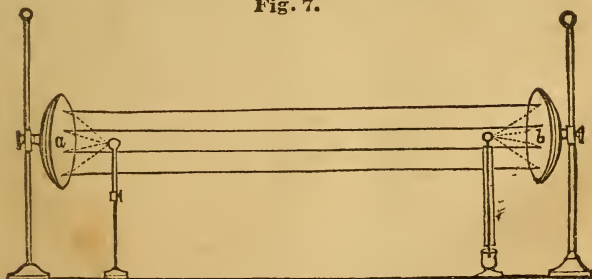
are two reflectors of polished metal, (brass or tin,) 12 inches in diameter, and segments of a sphere of 9 inches radius Place them at any convenient distance apart, from 6 to 12 feet. If a heated ball of iron be placed in the focus of *a*, and an air thermometer in that of *b*, the caloric will first radiate to the surface of *a*, and then be reflected in parallel lines to the surface of *b*, whence the rays will be reflected to the focus in which the bulb of the thermometer is placed, and will cause the liquid to descend, showing an increase of temperature. If phosphorus be placed in the focus, it will be ignited. If snow be substituted for the heated ball, the thermometer will show, by the rise of the liquid, a diminution of temperature. As bright, polished surfaces reflect most of the calorific rays which fall upon them, we can see the reason why they are not easily heated.

2. *Absorption of Caloric.* When radiant caloric falls upon rough, opaque substances, it is mostly absorbed; that is, it passes directly into the substance, and renders it hot: some of the rays are also reflected.

The power of absorption, as well as of radiation and reflection, depends mostly upon the surface. Those surfaces which reflect most, radiate and absorb least, and those which radiate and absorb most, reflect least. The power of absorption and that of radiation are equal; and as each increases, the power of reflection diminishes.

The color of the surface also affects the power of absorption. Dr. Stark has shown that black surfaces, other things being equal, absorb the most; dark green next to black; scarlet next; and white the least of all colors.*

Exp. This fact may be shown by placing strips of cloth of different colors upon snow, exposed to the sun's rays; the black will be found to sink into the snow to the greatest, and the white to the least, depth, because the black absorbs the rays which melt the snow, and the white reflects them. Hence the advantage of painting rooms white, or of whitewashing them: the rays of caloric are thus kept passing from side to side, without being absorbed and conducted away.

3. *Transmission of Caloric.* When radiant caloric falls upon the surface of transparent solid or liquid bodies, it passes through them in a slight degree.

It passes easily through air and other gaseous substances, without sensibly affecting them; but glass and crystalline

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* Recent experiments seem to disprove this doctrine; a black surface is rougher.

substances intercept most of the rays. Prof. Leslie contends that glass does not permit the rays to pass directly through it, but absorbs them at one surface, and transmits them to the other by conduction, from which they are again radiated. This opinion is supported by Dr. Brewster by an argument drawn from his optical researches. But the experiments of De la Roche lead to a different conclusion — that the calorific rays do pass through glass, although slowly. This opinion is supported by other chemists.

The radiant caloric which is associated with solar light passes readily through glass and other transparent bodies. The caloric, in this case, seems to be modified by its connection with light, and may be collected into a focus with the light, as in the case of a burning-glass. Caloric, thus associated, suffers refraction in passing from one medium to another, and in general is subject to the same laws with light.

IV. *Theories of Radiation.* Of the various theories to account for radiation, only *two* seem worthy of notice.

1. The theory of Pictet supposes that a hot body will radiate caloric to surrounding colder bodies, until the equilibrium is restored, and then cease.

2. The theory of Prevost supposes that all bodies, whatever be their temperature, are constantly giving out and receiving radiant caloric. When a body is giving out more rays than it is receiving, it is cooling. When it gives and receives an equal number, its temperature remains stationary, and is in equilibrium with surrounding bodies. When it receives more rays than it gives off, its temperature is increasing. On this theory, all bodies -- the polar ice, as well as the burning sands of the tropics — are constantly radiating and absorbing caloric.

Although most of the phenomena of radiation may be explained on both theories, preference is generally given to that of Prevost. The ground of this preference is found in the close analogy between the laws of light and heat. It is well known that luminous bodies continually exchange rays. A feeble light sends rays to one of greater intensity, and the quantity of rays emitted by each does not seem to be affected

by the vicinity of other luminous bodies. In like manner a. bodies are supposed continually to exchange rays of caloric.

V. *Application of the Theory of Prevost to the Explanation of various Phenomena.*

1. In the experiments with the mirrors, if the ball in the focus of one mirror is of the same temperature with the thermometer in that of the other, and with surrounding objects, the thermometer will remain stationary, because it receives from the ball the same quantity of rays which it sends to it; but if the temperature of the ball be raised above that of the surrounding objects, the thermometer will receive more rays than it imparts, and will consequently show an increase of temperature. If ice be substituted for the ball, the thermometer will show a diminution of temperature, because it gives out more rays than it receives.

When ice is placed in the focus of a mirror, *there is an apparent radiation of cold.* But on this theory it is easily explained, and is what might be expected previous to experiment.* *Cold* is a negative term, merely expressing the absence, in a greater or less degree, of caloric.

2. *The formation of dew depends upon radiation,* and is satisfactorily accounted for by this theory. The earth, during the day, becomes heated by absorbing the sun's rays, and the moisture is driven off into the air. During the night, it radiates more caloric than it receives, and becomes colder than the surrounding atmosphere. Successive strata of air charged with moisture, come in contact with the earth, and the moisture is condensed in the form of dew.

The quantity of dew will therefore depend upon the radiating power of the surface, and the quantity of moisture in the air; the more rapid the radiation, the more dew will be formed. There is more dew upon grass and leaves than upon stones; and the thermometer will sink 15° or 20° lower, when placed upon grass, than when suspended in the air, or laid on polished surfaces. In India, ice is formed by exposing water in pans in a clear night, when the temperature

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* See Turner, 6th edition, p. 13, note

of the air is never down to the freezing point But why is there no dew in a cloudy night? Because the clouds reflect back the radiant caloric to the earth, which therefore cannot become cooler than the air. In a clear night, there is no such interchange of rays, and the caloric passes off into the regions of space.*

VI. *Cooling of Bodies.* The cooling of a hot body is effected in two ways, already noticed. When surrounded by solid bodies in contact with it, the heat is carried off by conduction, and the velocity of cooling will depend upon the conducting power. When the heated body is immersed in liquids, the same is true to some extent, although much depends upon the mobility of the particles. But when surrounded by gases, the cooling takes place by means of conduction and radiation, and in a vacuum, by radiation alone.

Velocity of cooling means the number of degrees lost in a given time. *Law of cooling* refers to the relation which the velocities of equal successive periods bear to one another. The higher the temperature, other things being equal, the greater the velocity. If a body heated to 1000° lose 100° during the first second, Newton inferred that it would lose $\frac{1}{10}$ of the remainder, or 90°, during the next second, 81° the next, 72.9° the next, and 65.6° the next. These numbers form a geometrical series, whose ratio is 1.111; and, though the law is not universal, it holds true, when the temperature is but a little elevated above the air.

VII. *Practical Application of the Laws of Conducted and Radiant Caloric.* The material for windows should be a bad conductor of heat, as well as transparent; hence glass is best adapted to the purpose. Glass also admits solar heat, while it prevents the escape of artificial heat. Double walls, doors, and windows, add to the warmth of buildings, because they confine between them a stratum of air, which, when not in motion, is a good non-conductor. Snow, furs, woollens, etc., are better non-conductors, because they enclose air. Stoves which are rough radiate more heat than those which are

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* The quantity of dew seems to depend also upon the difference between the temperature of the atmosphere and that of the earth

polished. As the temperature of the human body usually exceeds that of the atmosphere, the object of clothing in cold weather is to retain the natural warmth; and hence it is made of good non-conductors. In hot weather, clothing should conduct off the heat more freely. Also, under a hot sun, a black dress is more uncomfortable than one of light color. Many articles employed in the common uses of life are selected with reference to their conducting and radiating properties, as materials for furnaces, culinary apparatus, etc.

Effects of Free Caloric.

The phenomena which may be ascribed to caloric as an agent, and which may therefore be classified as its effects, are numerous: some of these effects will now be enumerated.

The most remarkable property of caloric, as we have seen, is the repulsion, which exists among its particles, by which it tends to an equilibrium, or to bring all substances to the same degree of temperature. This property enables it to penetrate all bodies, and, by its accumulation, to separate the integrant molecules from each other. It thus acts in opposition to cohesive attraction; hence it may be stated as a general law, *that*

I. *Caloric expands all bodies; liquids* more than *solids,* and *gases* more than either.

1. *Caloric expands solids.* This may be shown by fitting an iron cylinder to an aperture, so that it will just slide through; heat it, and it will be too large to pass through.

2. *Equal degrees of caloric expand some solids more than others.* This may be shown by an instrument called a pyrometer, or fire measurer.

Fig. 8 represents this instrument. It is furnished with several rods, as iron, brass, copper, lead, and glass.

BB, posts standing in A, and secured from spreading apart by the two bars CC. G, a thumbscrew, passing through the post B, and entering one end of the rod D, holds it against a lever at the other end; as the rod is heated, it expands and presses against the lever, which raises E, at the end of which is a cord passing up, over the hub of the index, and down

again to the balance rod F ; E is raised by the expansion of the rod D ; F falls, drawing the cord, and giving motion to the hand.

Fig. 8.
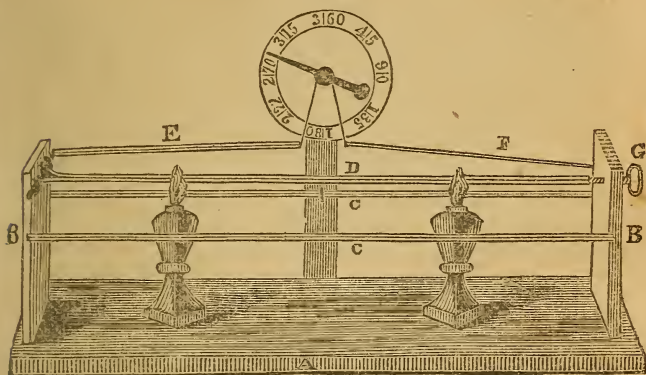
The following substances, when heated from 32° to 212° Fahr., are elongated as follows :

Flint glass, ... $\frac{1}{1248}$ of its length
Iron, ... $\frac{1}{812}$ "
Copper, ... $\frac{1}{581}$ "
Brass, ... $\frac{1}{532}$ "
Lead, ... $\frac{1}{351}$ "

3. *Equal increments, or additions of caloric, at different temperatures, do not expand the same solid equally.*

That is, the expansion of a brass or iron rod will be much greater between 500° and 600°, than between 100° and 200°, or than between 200° and 300°. The higher the temperature, the greater the expansion, with equal additions of caloric. This results from the fact that the power of cohesion is constantly diminished, the farther the integrant particles are removed from each other by heat.

4. *The expansion of some solids is more uniform than others, with equal additions of caloric.* The expansions of the more infusible solids are uniform within certain limits From 32° to 122°, their expansion is equal to that between

122° and 212°. But above 212°, the higher the temperature the greater the expansion, for equal additions of caloric.

II. *Caloric expands liquids more than solids.*

Fig. 9.

1. This fact may be illustrated by heating a column of water in a glass tube, and an iron rod of the same dimensions, by a spirit lamp; the water will rise in the tube, while the iron will scarcely be affected. The reason is, that the cohesive attraction in liquids is nearly destroyed.

Exp. Plunge a common thermometer into a jar of hot water, (Fig. 9.) The bulb of the thermometer will be expanded, and its capacity increased, but the mercury will be more expanded, and will rise in the tube.

Fig. 10.

2. *Equal increments of caloric expand some liquids more than others.* This may be illustrated by partially filling several glass tubes furnished with bulbs with different liquids, and placing them in hot water; as the liquids expand, they will rise to different heights in the tubes, as shown in Fig. 10.
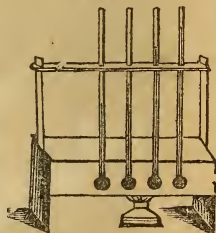
3. *Equal additions of caloric, at different temperatures, do not expand the same liquids equally.* The same law holds here as in the case of solids — the higher the temperature, the greater the expansion for equal amounts of heat; and those liquids also which expand the least are more uniform within certain limits. Apparent exceptions to the general law are found in the case of some liquids, near the point of congelation. Water expands by a diminution of temperature, and contracts by an addition of caloric, between the freezing point and 40° Fahr

III. *Caloric expands gases more than solids or liquids.*

Fig. 11.

1. The expansion of air may be shown by simply inverting a glass tube terminated by a bulb, and partly filled with water, (Fig. 11,) in a vessel of the same liquid: on heating the bulb, the air will expand, and expel the liquid from the tube; or by holding a bladder partly

filled with air near the fire, the air will soon expand, fill the bladder, and even burst it.*

2. *All gases, at any temperature, are expanded equally by equal additions of caloric.* In this respect, gases differ from solids and liquids. If, therefore, we can ascertain the expansion of one gas for a given number of degrees, we may know that of all others. The law of the expansion of air has been determined by Gay Lussac, who found that a given quantity of dry air dilates to $\frac{1}{480}$ of the volume it occupied at 32°, for the addition of each degree of Fahr.

Theory of Expansion. This has been already noticed. In the case of solids, the integrant particles are held together by cohesive attraction, but the caloric, being self-repellent, has the effect to overcome this force, and to separate the particles from each other.† In case of liquids, cohesive attraction is much more feeble; it will therefore require less power to separate the particles, and hence they are more expansible than solids. Gases are still less under the influence of cohesion, and hence are more expansible. In fact, the form which matter assumes seems to depend upon the relative force of caloric and cohesion. In solids, cohesion preponderates; in gases, caloric; but in perfect liquids, these forces are in equilibrium, (the caloric being in a combined, and not a sensible state.)

IV. *Apparent Exceptions.* Allusion was made to water and some other substances as apparent exceptions to the general law that heat expands and cold contracts all bodies. Water continues to contract, until it arrives at 39°, and then begins to expand until congelation takes place.

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* So great is the tendency of air and other gases to expand, that, if a given portion be confined in a bladder, or in a very thin glass of a square form, and put under the exhausted receiver of an air pump, the same effect will be produced as when heat is applied; the particles of gases seem to be wholly free from the influence of cohesive attraction, and expand by their own caloric when the pressure is removed.

† On the supposition that caloric is material, the effect is easily accounted for; but though its particles repel each other, they must have a strong attraction for matter, or they could not be introduced into it Caloric, therefore, is the antagonist force to cohesive attraction, but possesses a powerful attraction for matter, peculiar to itself.

Exp. Take a glass tube, with a bulb at one end, fill it with warm water, and place it in a mixture of salt and snow. The water in the tube will sink until it arrives at 39°, and then begin to rise until it arrives at 32°. The water, in becoming ice, will increase in bulk $\frac{1}{9}$, and ice, in melting, will diminish in bulk $\frac{1}{10}$; hence, if the specific gravity of water is 10, ice will be 9. The maximum density of water is at 39° Fahr.

V. *The force of expansion, when water freezes, is very great.* The Florentine academicians burst a hollow brass globe, whose cavity was only one inch in diameter, by freezing the water contained in it. This must have required a force equal to 27,720 pounds. Major Williams, in 1784–5, performed similar experiments at Quebec, by bursting bombs, which also illustrated the amazing force of water in the act of congelation.

In consequence of this expansive force, glass and earthen vessels are broken, by suffering water to freeze within them; water pipes are burst; pavements are thrown up, and destroyed, and walls, especially in moist grounds, thrown down.

Theory. The cause of this expansion is supposed to be due to crystallization. The particles, at 39°, seem to be endowed with a kind of polarity, and attract the edges of each other; and, at 32°, they are arranged in ranks and files, which cross at angles of 60° and 120°, as may be seen when water is freezing in a saucer. This new arrangement of the particles is supposed to increase the bulk; but, whether this hypothesis be correct or not, it seems best to explain the effect.*

VI. *Advantage of this Exception.* The wisdom and benevolence of God are strikingly exhibited in this arrangement. Otherwise, all our rivers, and lakes, and the ocean itself, in cold climates, would become solid masses of ice!

When a body of water is freezing, there are two currents

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* This hypothesis relieves us from the necessity of supposing a real exception to the laws of nature. The effect is due to the operation of another law, (crystallization,) to which the law of expansion gives place. For, after the crystallization is completed, the usual law prevails, and ice contracts, with the further reduction of temperature. Fissures are thus produced, in extreme cold weather, by the contraction of ice on ponds.

established, as in the case of boiling water. The surface gives off its caloric to the air, and the particles become heavy, and sink down. This forces the warm particles below to rise. But at 39° these currents are arrested, because the colder particles begin to expand, and remain at the top. As soon as they are frozen, a covering of ice prevents, in a great measure, the escape of caloric from beneath, and the process of freezing is greatly retarded. But, if the contraction extended to the freezing point, the colder particles would continue to fall to the bottom, until the whole should be brought to that point, and then suddenly freeze; or, if they should freeze upon the surface, the ice would continue to sink down until the whole should become a solid mass.

Hence, in cold climates, the rivers and lakes would be converted into solid ice, and all their inhabitants would be destroyed! But, by this simple and beautiful arrangement, the ice is retained upon the surface, and confines sufficient stores of caloric to preserve the inhabitants of the waters, and ender the coldest climates habitable by man.

Water is not the only liquid which expands under the reduction of temperature; as the same effect has been observed in a few others, which assume a highly crystalline structure, on becoming solid. Hence the exactness with which *cast iron* fills the mould, and the use of *antimony* in casting types. *Mercury* is a remarkable instance of the reverse; for, when it freezes, it suffers a very great contraction.

VII. *Practical Uses of the general Law of Expansion and Contraction.* All kinds of machinery are, of course, affected by this law. It must be strictly regarded in the construction of delicate time-pieces. Great use is made of it in the banding of wheels; the iron is heated, and fitted to the dimensions, and then suddenly cooled, so that, by its contraction, it presses with great force, and becomes immovably fixed. In riveting together iron plates for steam engine boilers, it is necessary to produce as close a joint as possible. This is effected by using the rivets red-hot; the contraction, which the rivet undergoes in cooling, draws the plates together with a force which is only limited by the tenacity of the metal of which the rivet itself is made.

M. Molard, a few years since, at Paris, availed himself of this

principle, to restore to their perpendicular direction two opposite walls of a gallery, which had been pressed outward by incumbent weight Through holes in the walls, several strong iron bars were introduced. so as to cross the apartment, with the ends projecting; upon which strong iron plates were screwed. The bars were then heated, and, while hot, the plates were screwed up. On cooling, the bars contracted, and drew the walls together. By repeating this process several times, they were restored to their original position. Balloons were first sent up filled with air which had been expanded by heat.

Winds. The phenomena of winds depend upon the expansion of the air by the heat of the sun. In this way the trade winds are produced. Land and sea breezes depend upon radiation and expansion. During the day, the earth is more heated than the water, and the air is more expanded, and rises up. This will produce currents of cold air from the water to the land, called *sea breezes.* During the night, the earth radiates caloric more rapidly than the water, the air becomes cooler, and currents pass from the land to the water. These are called *land breezes.* Winds are also produced in those deserts which become greatly heated during the day.

Thermometers. But one of the most ingenious and useful applications of this law is to be found in the thermometer. Its invention is generally ascribed to Sanctorius, who flourished in the seventeenth century. Some ascribe it to Cornelius Drebel, and others to Galileo.

1. *Air Thermometers.* The substance employed by Sanctorius was atmospheric air, by the expansion and contraction of which he was enabled to measure variations of temperature. His plan was very simple. The instrument consists of a glass tube, (Fig. 12,) open at one end, with a ball blown at the other; enough of some colored liquid is poured in to fill half the tube, which is then inverted in a vessel of the same liquid. The air in the bulb, by its expansion, causes the water in the tube to sink, and, by its contraction, the pressure of the atmosphere causes it to rise. By adapting a scale to the tube, the instrument is fitted for use.*

Fig. 12.

On one account, air is the best substance for a thermometer,

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* This instrument is easily constructed by heating a glass tube in the fire, and blowing a bulb upon the end; then insert the open end in some colored liquid.

because its expansions and contractions are equal, with equal additions of caloric. But there are two objections to the use of this instrument; — it can be depended upon only when the barometer stands at a fixed point; variations of atmospheric pressure materially affect the rise or fall of the liquid. The expansion of gases, also, with slight degrees of caloric, is so great, that the length of the tube for measuring high or low temperatures would render the instrument inconvenient in practice.

2. *Differential Thermometer.* Sir J. Leslie, in 1804, constructed a thermometer, in which air is used, which is not affected by atmospheric pressure.

It consists of two glass balls, (Fig. 13,) joined together by a glass tube, bent twice at right angles. The balls contain air, but the tube is nearly filled with sulphuric acid, colored with carmine. To one leg of this tube is applied a scale. It is evident that no effect will be produced upon the liquid, if both balls are heated alike, because the air in both will suffer equal expansion; but the slightest difference between the temperature of the two balls, will instantly be indicated by the rise or fall of the liquid in the tube.

Fig. 13.

Hence its only use is to detect slight variations of temperature between two substances, or of two contiguous spots in the same atmosphere, in very delicate experiments, where caloric is reflected, or refracted to a focus. It is hence called the *Differential Thermometer.*

A much more delicate instrument of this kind has been constructed by Dr. Howard, of Baltimore, in which the vapor of ether, or alcohol, *in vacuo*, is used instead of air.

But if air expands *too much*, and is affected by pressure, so as to be unfitted for the common purposes of measuring the degrees of temperature, solid substances, on the other hand, expand *too little*.

The substance most convenient is a liquid, and the object is, to find some liquid whose dilations are nearly equal with equal additions of caloric, and whose boiling and freezing

points are removed at the greatest distance from each other
Alcohol and ether would answer this purpose very well in
one respect, — they resist congelation to a very low tempera-
ture, but boil much sooner than water. Mercury seems to be
the only substance which will answer the necessary condi-
tions.

3. *Mercurial Thermometer.* This instrument   Fig. 14.
(Fig. 14) is constructed in the following manner:
A tube is selected with a small bore, of uniform
diameter, and a small ball is blown at one end.
The air is then mostly expelled from the bulb, by
holding it in a spirit lamp, and the end of the tube
quickly inverted in a cup of clear, dry mercury.
As the bulb cools, the atmosphere forces the mer-
cury into the bulb, which fills it two thirds full;
the bulb is again heated, and the mercury rises up,
nearly filling the tube, and expelling the air. It is
again inverted over mercury, when the bulb and
one third of the tube are filled; it is then heated
until it boils, and fills the tube to the top. A fine flame is
then darted from a blowpipe * upon the open extremity of
the tube, so as to fuse the glass, and close the aperture
before the mercury recedes. It is then said to be *hermeti-
cally sealed,* and the space abandoned at the upper extremity
of the tube, as it cools, is a vacuum.

Graduation. This is effected by ascertaining two fixed points; and,
as water always freezes at the same temperature, and also boils at the
same temperature, when the barometer stands at the same height, we
have only to immerse the bulb and a part of the stem in melting snow,
or water containing ice, and mark the point to which the mercury
sinks. This is the freezing point. To fix the boiling point, distilled
water should be used, and the barometer should stand at 30 inches.
A small quantity of the water, not more than one inch in depth, and
contained in a deep metallic vessel, is made to boil briskly, and the
point to which the mercury rises, is marked; this is the boiling point.
These two points being fixed, the interval is variously divided into
equal parts.

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* Fig. 15 represents the most common forms   Fig. 15.
of the blowpipe. It consists of a brass or copper
tube, tapering nearly to a point, through the small
end of which the air is forced, either by placing
the large end in the mouth, or by adapting to it a
pair of bellows.
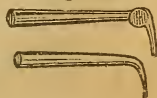
Newton first suggested a scale, in which the zero was placed at the freezing point, and the interval divided into 40 parts, or degrees. In *Fahrenheit's thermometer*, which is generally used in this country and in England, the zero is placed at 32° below the freezing point, and the interval between the freezing and the boiling points is divided into 180 parts, so that the boiling point of water is 212°. Fahrenheit fixed his zero by immersing the thermometer in a mixture of snow and salt. Reaumur's scale places the freezing point at zero, and the boiling at 80°. De Lisle placed the boiling point at zero, and the freezing at 150° below; this is used in Russia. But the most convenient scale is that of Celsius, in which the freezing point is at zero, and the boiling at 100°, called the *Centigrade thermometer;* this is used in France. The different scales are seen in Fig. 16.

The scale is either marked on the tube by a diamond, or on ivory or paper, and attached to the tube. The degrees above the boiling and below the freezing points occupy equal spaces with those between these points. The temperature expressed by one scale can be reduced to that of another, by knowing the relation which exists between their degrees. The lower part of the scale, in laboratory thermometers, (Fig. 14,) turns up by a hinge, so that the bulb can be immersed in corrosive liquids.

Fig. 16.

4. *Register Thermometer.* This instrument consists of two thermometer tubes, (Fig. 17,) bent at right angles, and retaining a horizontal position. One tube contains alcohol, and

Fig. 17.

the other mercury. A small piece of black enamel is placed in the tubes on the surface of each liquid. As the alcohol contracts by exposure to cold, the enamel follows it towards
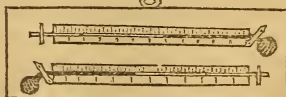
the bulb; but when it expands, the enamel remains stationary, and suffers the liquid to pass by it. When the mercury contracts, the enamel does not follow it; but when the mercury expands, it is forced along. Consequently, it remains at the highest temperature. The enamel, in the tube of alcohol, will indicate the lowest, and that in the tube of mercury the highest, temperature during any given time.

For measuring temperatures below ·39° F., the freezing point of mercury, alcohol, or ether, must be employed; for temperatures above 662°, no liquid can be used, as they are all either decomposed, or dissipated in vapors. For very high temperatures, therefore, some of the more infusible solids are used. The instruments for this purpose are called

Pyrometers. This term is derived from two Greek words, signifying measurer of fire.

1. *Pyrometer of Wedgwood.* This is founded on the property which clay possesses of contracting when strongly heated, without expanding when cooled; but the indications of this instrument cannot be relied on, and it is seldom used.

2. *Pyrometer of Daniell.* This instrument, the best now in use, consists of a bar of platinum enclosed in a case $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches in depth, made of black lead: one end of the bar is fixed; the other is made to move an index, as it is heated. This, however, is not perfectly accurate, owing to the greater expansion of the platinum, in high temperatures, with equal degrees of heat. Generally, these instruments depend upon the elongation of a metallic bar by heat; and one of the best for illustration is described on page 37.

3. On the same principle is the *Metallic Thermometer* of Brequet, (Fig. 18,) for temperatures between the freezing and boiling points of water. It consists of a slip of silver and one of platinum, united face to face with solder, and coiled into a spiral, *d*, one end of which, *c*, is fixed, while the other is connected with an index, *e*, which moves over a circular, graduated plate, *f*, *f*. This index is found to move over equal spaces with equal additions of caloric; and so sensible is it to slight

Fig. 18.
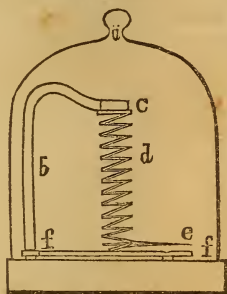
variations, that when enclosed in a large receiver, which was rapidly exhausted by an air pump, it indicated a reduction of temperature from 66° to 25° = 41°, while a sensible mercurial thermometer fell only 36°.

It will be readily seen that thermometers do not give us the *absolute,* but only the *relative* quantity of caloric contained in bodies. The true *zero,* or that point where absolutely no caloric exists, is unknown. Some have conjectured that it is 1200° or 1400° below the freezing point of water. But it is mere conjecture; nor is it known, on the other hand, how high a temperature might result from an accumulation of heat. Neither limit is known. The thermometers and other instruments measure only a few degrees, in the middle of a scale, whose extremities are indefinitely extended.

Sect. 2. Insensible Caloric.

Every one sees that a quart of water contains double the quantity of caloric which is contained in a pint of the same liquid, when the temperature of both is the same. This is called insensible caloric, because it does not affect the thermometer.

Specific Caloric. But different quantities of caloric are required to raise equal weights of different substances to the same temperature; and, conversely, different quantities are given out by them in cooling equally. Suppose, for example, that, on adding a given quantity of heat to a pound of water at 50°, the temperature will become 60°, — the addition of the same quantity to a pound of sperm oil at 50°, will raise the temperature to 70°, while a pound of powdered glass will be raised from 50° to 100° by the same quantity of caloric. The temperature is increased 10°, 20°, and 50°, in these different substances; i. e., if the required temperature to which they shall be raised be given, the oil will require but half as much heat as the water, and the glass only one fifth as much. *Specific heat is the relative quantity of caloric requisite to raise the temperature of substances equally;* i. e., taking water for a standard at 1, the specific heat of sperm oil will be $\frac{5}{10}$, and of powdered glass $\frac{2}{10}$.*

* The phrase *capacity for caloric* was formerly used, and was in-

In these experiments, a portion of caloric disappears This portion has been called latent or combined caloric in reference to the theory mentioned in the note below The phrase *insensible* heat is preferred, as not involving any theory

Methods of determining Specific Heat.   Various methods have been employed to ascertain the specific heat of substances.   The most convenient method is to mix with the substances, all being at the same temperature, a given quantity of some liquid, as water, at some other given temperature, and observe the relative effects.   Thus, as in the example given, a pound of water at 80° may be added to a pound of the same at 50°, and the resulting temperature will be the mean, 65°; another pound of water at 80° to a pound of oil at 50°, and the resulting temperature will be 70°; i. e., the oil will gain 20° while the water loses but 10°.; and again, a pound of water at 80° to a pound of glass at 50°, and the temperature of the mixture will be 75°, the glass gaining 25° by 5° loss of the water. . Other and more difficult experiments are necessary to ascertain the specific heat of gases and of solid bodies.

Laws of Specific Heat.   The principal laws of specific heat are the following : —

1. At the same temperature, and, in the case of gases with the same pressure, the specific heat of each body is constant.

2. The higher the temperature, and, in the case of gases, the less the pressure, the greater the specific heat of the same body.

This is supposed to be owing to expansion.   In gases, the specific heat varies with the density and elasticity ; the greater the density, the less the specific caloric; and the greater the elasticity, the greater the specific caloric.

3. A change of form is accompanied by a change of specific caloric.   The specific heat of a body, as it passes from a solid to a liquid state, is increased.   It is also supposed to

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tended to convey the idea, that a portion of the heat enters into and is combined with substances in a latent state ; but this is hypothetical, and the phrase specific heat is preferred, as involving merely a fact.

be increased by a change of the body from a liquid state to that of a gas or vapor.

4. As each substance has a specific heat peculiar to itself, it follows that a change of constitution is accompanied by a change of specific heat.

5. A change of specific heat is generally accompanied by a change of temperature. Thus the expansion of a gas, which increases its specific heat, diminishes its temperature

As a practical inference from the doctrine of specific heat, it may be remarked, that much less fuel will be necessary to heat some substances than others.

Effects of Insensible Caloric.

These are liquefaction and vaporization.*

I. LIQUEFACTION. All bodies exist in one of three states, *solid, liquid,* or *gaseous,* and their forms seem to depend, as we have seen, (page 39,) upon the relative forces of cohesion and caloric. Hence, by the increase and diminution of either of these forces, we can cause the body to assume either of these states. If a solid be sufficiently heated, it will become liquid, and then gaseous. So general is this fact, that it may be stated as a law.

1. *Point of Liquefaction.* The temperature at which liquefaction takes place, is called the *melting point,* or *point of fusion,* as that at which liquids solidify is termed the *point of congelation.* These points are identical; but there is a very great difference in substances as to the degree of heat which is required to fuse them. Each substance has a fixed point of fusion and of congelation.

2. *Caloric of Fluidity.* If a pound of ice, which is at 32°, be melted in a pound of water at 172°, the temperature of the whole will not be at the mean of 102°, but at 32°, showing that 140° have been taken into a latent state, by the liquefaction of the ice. Generally, liquefaction is accom-

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* Classed as effects of insensible caloric, because the free caloric passes into an insensible state, which is essential to the process.

panied by the conversion of *free* into *insensible* heat.   The
heat which thus disappears seems essential to the process of
liquefaction, and is called the *caloric of fluidity*.   Its quantity
varies in different substances, as in the following table : —

Ice . . .	140°	Fahr.	Beeswax .	175°	Fahr.
Sulphur .	143.68°	"	Zinc . .	490°	"
Spermaceti	145°	"	Tin . .	500°	"
Lead . .	162°	"	Bismuth .	550°	"

Irvine.

When the process is reversed, in congelation, this insensi-
ble caloric is thrown out in a free state.   Thus the freezing
of water produces heat.

3. *Freezing Mixtures.*   Liquefaction may be produced
without the addition of heat, and hence the caloric of fluidity
will be obtained, in part, from the temperature of the sub-
stances melted, but chiefly from the surrounding bodies ; a
great degree of cold is thus often produced.   On this princi-
ple various *freezing mixtures* are contrived.   The most com-
mon method of producing cold is, to mix together equal
quantities of fine salt and fresh fallen snow, or pounded ice.
The salt melts the snow by its affinity for water, and the
water dissolves the salt, so that both are liquefied.   The degree
of cold produced is 32° below the freezing point of water,
or at zero.   This led Fahrenheit to commence his scale at
that point.   Any other substance, which has a strong affinity
for water, may be substituted for salt.   The crystallized
chloride of calcium is the best, because it produces the most
rapid liquefaction.   The following table, constructed by Mr
Walker, contains the proportions of several substances to
produce different degrees of cold.

MIXTURES.	Parts by Weight.	Thermometer sinks	Deg. of Cold produced.
Sea-salt	1		
Snow	2	. . . to — 5°	
Sea-salt	2		
Muriate of ammonia .	1	. . . to —12°	
Snow	5		
Sea-salt	5		
Nitrate of ammonia .	5	. . . to —25°	
Snow	12		
Diluted sulphuric acid	2	from + 32° to — 23°	55 deg
Snow . . .	3		

Concentrated muriatic acid	5	from + 32° to — 27°	59 deg
Snow	8		
Concentrated nitrous acid	4	from + 32° to — 30°	62
Snow	7		
Chloride of calcium . .	5	from + 32° to — 40°	72
Snow	4		
Fused potassa	4	from + 32° to — 51°	83
Snow	3		

Freezing may also be effected by the rapid solution of salts. The following table exhibits the proportions, taken from Walker's essay in the Phil. Trans. 1795. The salts must be finely powdered and dry.

MIXTURES.	Parts by Weight.	Thermometer falls	Deg. of Cold produced
Muriate of ammonia .	5		
Nitrate of potassa . .	5	from + 50° to + 10°	40 deg.
Water	16		
Nitrate of ammonia . .	1	from + 50° to + 4°	46
Water	1		
Nitrate of ammonia . .	1		
Carbonate of soda . .	1	from + 50° to — 7°	57
Water	1		
Sulphate of soda . .	3	from + 50° to — 3°	53
Diluted nitrous acid .	2		
Sulphate of soda . . .	6		
Nitrate of ammonia .	5	from + 50° to — 14°	64
Diluted nitrous acid . .	4		
Phosphate of soda . .	9	from + 50° to — 12°	62
Diluted nitrous acid .	4		
Phosphate of soda . .	9		
Nitrate of ammonia .	6	from + 50° to — 21°	71
Diluted nitrous acid . .	4		
Sulphate of soda . . .	8	from + 50° to 0°	50
Muriatic acid	5		
Sulphate of soda . . .	5	from + 50° to + 3°	47
Diluted sulphuric acid .	4		

In order to the greatest effect, the substances should be cooled in a freezing mixture before they are united.

4. The degree of cold produced by these artificial processes, is limited. The greater the difference between the temperature of the air and that of the mixture, the more rapidly will the air communicate caloric to it; and this soon

puts a limit to the degree of cold. According to Mr. Walker the greatest cold did not exceed 100° below the zero of Fahrenheit. But a more intense cold is produced by evaporation.

5. No process, however, will deprive a body of all its caloric. Dr. Irvine has attempted to infer the absolute amount from the specific caloric of bodies; thus ice contains $\frac{1}{10}$ less specific caloric than water; and, as this $\frac{1}{10}$ is equal to 140°, it is inferred, that water contains ten times the amount, or 1400° of caloric; but the estimates made by different chemists vary from 900° to 8000°, which shows that but little confidence can be put in their calculations.

II. VAPORIZATION. By vaporization is meant the conversion of liquid and solid substances into vapor. It is generally supposed that, if sufficient caloric be applied, all substances are susceptible of this change.

A *gas* differs from a *vapor* in the circumstance that it is not so easily condensed into a liquid; it retains its state at ordinary temperatures and pressures. "The only difference between gases and vapors is the relative forces with which they resist condensation." — T.

Some substances yield vapor readily, and are called *volatile*. Others sustain the strongest heat of furnaces, without volatilizing, and are hence said to be *fixed* in the fire. This difference seems to depend on the relative forces of cohesion and caloric. Liquids are more easily vaporized than solids; and solids, with a few exceptions, like camphor, assume the liquid state before they are converted into vapor.

Liquids may be vaporized in two ways: 1. by ebullition; 2. by evaporation. In the first case, there is a rapid production of vapor, causing commotion in the liquid; and in the second, the process is conducted silently, the vapor imperceptibly passing off from the surface of the liquid.

Ebullition.

1. *Boiling Point.* The temperature at which a liquid is converted by ebullition into a vapor, is called its boiling point. This point varies greatly in different liquids under the same circumstances, and in the same liquid under different

degrees of pressure.   But each liquid has a fixed boiling point, when all the circumstances are the same.

2. The chief circumstance which modifies the boiling point of the same liquid, is the *pressure of the atmosphere.* A column of air, extending to the top of the atmosphere, presses upon every square inch of surface with a force equal to 15 lbs.   This is sufficient to sustain a column of mercury 30 inches, or a column of water 34 feet.   But the pressure varies at different times on the surface of the earth; and as we ascend high mountains, the pressure diminishes rapidly. The instrument by which this variation is measured is called the

Barometer, the principle of which may be illustrated by filling a glass tube, open at one end, and about 33 inches long, with mercury, and inverting the open end in a cup of the same liquid.   (See Fig. 19.)   The pressure of the atmosphere on the surface will sustain the mercury in the tube to the height of from 27 to 31 inches.

When the barometer stands at 30 inches, ether boils at 96°, alcohol at 176°, water at 212°, and mercury at 662°, F. If the barometer stand at 28 inches, all these substances will boil at a lower temperature, and if it rise to 31 inches, the boiling points will be raised.   Hence the two following laws :

1. *As the pressure on the surface of liquids diminishes, their boiling temperatures diminish.*   Thus water heated to 72°, and placed under the receiver of an air pump, will boil, on exhausting the air, if the temperature be preserved.

Ether will boil violently, under an exhausted re- **Fig. 19.** ceiver, at the common temperature of the atmosphere.

Exp. 1. Fill the barometer tube *a* with mercury, (Fig. 19,) and invert it in a cup *c* of the same liquid; then introduce a small quantity of ether.   As soon as it reaches the vacuum *r*, it boils rapidly, and the vapor forces the mercury down the tube.

Exp. 2. The pulse glass (Fig. 20) acts on the same principle.   It is constructed by blowing a bulb *b* on the end of a glass tube, in which a small opening is made, and through this a similar

Fig. 20.
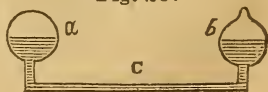
bulb *a* is blown on the other end. Some spirits of wine are now introduced, and heated in the closed bulb *a* until the vapor escapes from the aperture in *b*, when it is hermetically sealed. The heat of the hand upon either bulb is sufficient to cause violent ebullition.

Ether boils in vacuo at — 44°, alcohol at 36°, and water at 72°, and liquids generally boil at temperatures 140° less *in vacuo* than at the common pressure.

It is owing to this fact, that intense cold can be produced by boiling ether in vacuo. Water, and even mercury, under favorable circumstances, may be frozen. To render the experiment successful, there should be sulphuric acid in the receiver to absorb the vapor of ether, which, by its pressure, would otherwise soon prevent the ether from boiling.

2. *As the pressure on the surface of liquids increases, their boiling temperatures increase.* When water is heated to the temperature of 212°, its force upon each square inch is equal to 15 lbs. As this is equal to the pressure of the atmosphere, it will, at this temperature, escape in vapor; hence it cannot be heated in the open air above this point. But if the pressure be increased sufficiently, it may be heated to any extent, without exhibiting the phenomena of ebullition.

Fig. 21.

Exp. Boil water in a Florence flask, (Fig. 21,) and cork it tight; the ebullition will instantly cease, because the steam formed will press upon its surface; but by pouring on cold water, and condensing the steam, it will boil violently; pour on warm water, and it will stop boiling. This is a convenient mode of illustrating both of the above laws: as the pressure is increased by the formation of steam, the boiling point is raised, while it is lowered by condensing the vapor and diminishing the pressure. This is called the *culinary paradox.*

But, in order to exhibit the influence of pressure upon the boiling point, we must employ a strong metallic boiler, called a *digester*, which consists simply of a strong boiler furnished with stop-cocks and valves, and an apparatus to ascertain the temperature and pressure. Water confined in this boiler may be heated to a very high temperature without boiling; but the steam which will be formed will endanger the boiler, before we can ascertain its greatest expansive force or pressure upon the liquid.

For experiments on the pressure of steam, *Marcet's digester* (Fig. 22) is well adapted · *a* is a strong brass globe, into which a portion of mercury is poured, and then half filled with water; *b* a barometer tube passing through a steam-tight collar to the bottom of the globe; *c* is a thermometer graduated to 400° or 500°; *d* a stop-cock; *e* a spirit lamp;* and *f* a brass stand, upon which the whole is supported. Upon the stop-cock *d* a steam gun may be screwed. When heat is applied, the pressure is measured by the height to which the mercury rises in the tube *b*, and the temperature is ascertained at the same time by the thermometer *c* On the application of heat, as soon as the water boils, the thermometer will stand at 212°, and the pressure, of course, will be equal to one atmosphere, or 15 lbs. to the square inch. As the temperature increases to 217°, the pressure will elevate the mercury 5 inches, and at 242° about 30 inches, each degree of temperature raising the mercury about one inch.

Fig. 22.
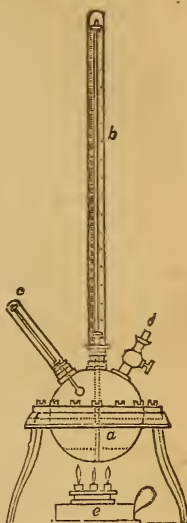
Absorption of Free Caloric in Ebullition. When water is converted into steam, a great quantity of sensible heat is taken up into a latent state; which, on condensation, again appears in a free state.

If, for example, steam at 212° sufficient to form one pint

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* The spirit lamp is very useful for producing heat in the laboratory. It consists of a small glass lamp *a*, (Fig. 23,) the wick of which passes through a metallic collar *c;* *b* is an extinguisher, to prevent the wick from absorbing water when not in use. It is filled with alcohol, which burns in the same manner as oil, but does not yield any smoke. A common glass or tin lamp will answer a very good purpose, using alcohol instead of oil.

Fig. 23.
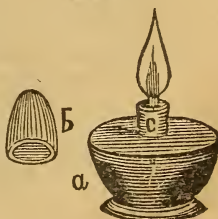
of water, be condensed in ten pints of water at 117°, the temperature of the whole will be 212°; the ten pints will be elevated 95° : this is equivalent to raising the temperature of one pint 950°. The latent heat of steam is, therefore, 950°; other substances are subject to the same law. Hence it may be stated generally, that, *in ebullition, heat is taken into a latent state, and given out on condensation.*

The latent heat of different vapors is various, as may be seen in the following table : —

	Latent Heat.
Vapor of water at its boiling point . . .	967°
Alcohol	442
Ether	302.379
Petroleum	177.87
Oil of turpentine	177.87
Nitric acid	531.99
Liquid ammonia	837.28
Vinegar	875

Steam is formed, ordinarily, by ebullition. At the moment when water takes the state of vapor, in the open air, it has an expansive force equal to one atmosphere, or 15 lbs. on the sq. inch. If, then, it be disconnected from water, its laws of expansion and contraction, at all temperatures above 212°, are the same as all gaseous bodies. Equal increments of caloric expand it equally, and its expansion is in the ratio of the heating power; for every degree of Fahrenheit's thermometer, it expands $\frac{1}{480}$ of what its volume would be at 32°, if it did not condense. It may be heated, like any gas, until it is red hot, if the vessel is sufficiently strong. But steam is usually formed in the boiler where water is present, and, as the temperature increases, fresh portions of steam are constantly added to that which is already formed, so that its expansive force increases in a much more rapid ratio.

According to the experiments of Dulong and Arago, if we take atmospheric pressure for unity, we shall find the pressure of steam at 233.96°, equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ atmospheres.

250.52 equal to 2 atmospheres, or 30 lbs. to the sq. inch.

275.18	"	3	"	45	"	"
320.36	"	6	"	90	"	"

374   equal to 12 atmospheres, or 180lbs. to the sq. inch.
435.56   "   24   "   360   "   "
486.59   "   40   "   600   "   "
510.60   "   50   "   750   "   "

When steam, at a high temperature, is condensed in cold water, a loud, crackling noise is heard, which is due to the collapse of the water, a vacuum being formed by the sudden condensation of the steam.

Exp. Let a jet of steam rush from the digester through a pipe into cold water.

When liquids are converted into vapor, under high pressure, the vapor is very dense. If, then, it is allowed to escape from the orifice of the boiler, the hand may be held at a short distance without being burned, though the temperature of the steam, before it escapes, is several hundred degrees.

This is due to its expansion, and the consequent absorption of its sensible caloric. When water is converted into steam at 212°, it absorbs 950° of caloric. If now it be condensed to 32°, it will give out 950° of latent, and 180° of sensible caloric $= 1130°$. Now, if we take the same weight of steam, at a higher temperature, 250°, and condense it to 32°, it will give out 912° of insensible, and 218° of sensible caloric $= 1130°$; hence the *sum of the sensible and insensible caloric contained in equal weights of steam, is exactly the same at all temperatures $= 1130°$.*

The absorption of caloric seems to perform a similar office in vaporization and liquefaction, being essential both to the formation of vapors and of liquids.

Application of Steam to practical Purposes.

1. *It is used for warming rooms.* For this purpose it is conveyed in pipes, and continues to heat the room until its caloric is nearly exhausted. It is then condensed to water, and gives out its latent caloric.

Every cubic foot of steam in the boiler will heat 200 feet of space to 70° or 80°; and each square foot of steam pipe will warm 200 cubic feet of space.

It is used for heating water-baths and dyeing-vats; for
3*

bleaching cloth; for producing a vacuum by its condensa-
tion; for various culinary purposes; also, for drying various
substances, such as muslins, calicoes, gun-powder, etc.

2. But its most important application is to the propelling
of machinery : the instrument employed for this purpose is the
steam engine; the invention of which is due to Capt. Savery.

The principle of his invention may be illus-
trated by a tube, with a ball blown at one end,
(Fig. 24); fill this with water, and invert it in
the same liquid, apply heat to the bulb, and,
as soon as the water is at 212°, steam will be
formed, and force the water out ; but, as soon as
the steam comes in contact with the cold water
in the vessel, it is suddenly condensed; a
vacuum is formed, and the atmosphere forces
the water with great violence up the tube, so
as to fill the bulb. If a piston be fitted to

Fig. 24.

the tube, it will constitute the instrument devised by Dr
Wollaston, except that the steam in his apparatus is con-
densed by putting the bulb into cold water. The atmos-
phere presses the piston down, while it is raised by causing
the water in the bulb to boil.

The moving power of the steam engine is the same as in
this apparatus, but the steam is condensed in a separate ves-
sel called the condenser : this constitutes the improvement of
Watt, by which means, the temperature of the cylinder is
never below 212° Fahr.

3. *The steam generator* of Mr. Perkins sustains a pres-
sure of 800, 1000, and even 1500lbs. on the square inch.
The steam is then so hot as to set fire to tow, and even ignite
the generator at its orifice. At this very high temperature,
it is about half as heavy as water. It is a remarkable fact,
that, at such pressures, the steam will not rush through a
small aperture, through which it will rush with great violence,
and a roaring noise, when the temperature and pressure are
diminished. Mr. Perkins thinks that 400 atmospheres, or
6000 lbs. to the square inch, is the maximum of pressure ;
i. e., that under this pressure, water will remain liquid at any
temperature, even at a white heat. The boiler of the gener-
ator is small, and not more than a gallon of water is used at
a time.

Steam Artillery. Mr. Perkins has succeeded in applying this amazing force to the propelling of cannon balls. He states that sixty 4lb. balls can be discharged in a minute, with the accuracy of a rifle musket, and to a proportional distance. A musket may also be made to throw from one hundred to a thousand balls per minute. It is greatly to be hoped that his experiments will prove successful; for, if such engines of death could be brought into the field of battle, few nations would be willing to settle their disputes in that way. Few would fight in the prospect of certain death.

Distillation. This process is conducted by converting liquids into vapor, which passes into a long, metallic tube, or worm, surrounded by cold water. The vapor is condensed, and the liquor runs off at the opposite extremity of the tube. Fig. 25 represents this apparatus; *a* a copper boiler, *b* its head, connected with the

Fig. 25.

worm, which is coiled in the refrigerator *d.* The vessel *d* is filled with cold water to condense the vapor in the worm as it passes through it.
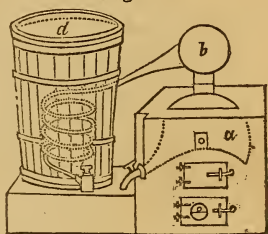
Evaporation.

The only difference between evaporation and ebullition is, that the one takes place quietly, and the other with the appearance of boiling. Evaporation takes place at all temperatures, but ebullition at fixed temperatures. The former takes place, not only in all liquids, but in many solids, as camphor; the latter is confined to liquids.

1. *Evaporation is much more rapid in some liquids than in others,* and it is always found that those liquids whose boiling points are lowest evaporate with the greatest rapidity.

Thus alcohol, which boils at a lower temperature than water, evaporates also more freely, and ether, whose point of ebullition is yet lower than that of alcohol, evaporates with still greater rapidity. Also, if the temperature of the liquid be raised or lowered, the evaporation will be more or less rapid.

2. *Increase of pressure checks evaporation, and diminution of pressure promotes it;* thus water will evaporate much more rapidly in a vacuum.

This is precisely what we should expect from the fact just mentioned, that evaporation is most rapid in liquids whose boiling point is lowest; for the diminution of pressure lowers the boiling point. From the three facts which have been mentioned, it may be inferred that *evaporation is more rapid as the distance between the boiling point and the temperature of the substance diminishes.*

The other circumstances that influence the process of evaporation are,

3. *Extent of Surface.* As evaporation goes on from the surface, it is evident that, the greater the extent of surface, the more rapid the evaporation.

4. *State of the Atmosphere.* If the atmosphere be already saturated with moisture, evaporation will be checked; or, if the air remain still, it will soon become saturated, and the evaporation is promoted by the motion of the air.

5. *Absorption of Free Caloric by Evaporation.* If a dish of water be placed in the exhausted receiver of an air pump, and another, of sulphuric acid, to absorb the vapor of the water, the water will evaporate so rapidly, as to be frozen by the absorption of its sensible caloric.* Hence *the effect of evaporation is to produce cold;* because the sensible caloric passes into an insensible state.

Exp. This may be further illustrated by filling a small glass tube with water, and surrounding it with cotton wool. If the cotton wool be soaked with ether, and a current of air, from a common bellows, be directed upon it, the water, in the course of a few moments, will congeal.

Exp. A very satisfactory experiment is performed with the *cryophorus,* an instrument invented by Dr. Wollaston. It consists of two glass balls, (Fig. 26,) connected by a glass tube. Both balls are free from air; but one of them contains a portion of distilled water. When

Fig. 26.

the other ball is placed in a freezing mixture, so as to condense the watery vapor as fast as it formed, the evaporation is so rapid from the

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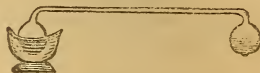
* The most intense cold which has been produced is the effect of evaporation If a large quantity of carbonic acid gas be condensed into a liquid by pressure, and suffered to escape through a small aperture, it will congeal by its own expansion; the solid acid thus formed will evaporate so rapidly in a vacuum, as to produce the cold of — 136° Fahr. At this temperature, the strongest alcohol becomes viscid, and common alcohol becomes frozen.

surface of the water in the other ball, as to freeze it in two or three minutes.

6. *Cause of Evaporation.* The cause of evaporation is, doubtless, the same as that of ebullition — *caloric;* although some have attempted to account for it on the supposition of an affinity between the air and the evaporated liquid; but evaporation in a vacuum is fatal to this hypothesis.

7. *Uses of Evaporation.* It is well fitted for cooling apartments. All that is necessary for this purpose, is to sprinkle the floor with water.

It moderates the heat of warm climates; hence places near large bodies of water are cooler in the summer than those more remote, and the greater the heat from the sun's rays, the more rapid the evaporation, and of course the greater quantity of sensible caloric goes into an insensible state.

Evaporation not only takes place from the surface of water, but from the surface of the earth, and from plants and animals; hence it tends to defend the animal, as well as the vegetable system, from external heat. When an animal is exposed to external heat, perspiration commences over the whole surface, and the liquid, in passing to a vapor, absorbs the sensible caloric. On this principle fire-kings subject themselves to a high temperature, with but little inconvenience. The oven girls of Germany, also, often expose themselves to a temperature of from 250° to 280°, and one girl breathed five minutes in an atmosphere of 325°. In these cases, water boils rapidly, and beef-steak is cooked in a few minutes. If, however, the air be moist, or the body be varnished, so as to prevent perspiration, the heat cannot be sustained for a moment. The heat produced by violent exercise is carried off in the same manner.

But the vital principle, doubtless, has much to do in fortifying the system against the extremes of heat and cold; for, although men may be subjected to a range of temperature of more than 400°, — from 350° above to 75° or 80° below zero, — the temperature of their bodies does not vary five

degrees, but remains stationary at 98° and 100°, during all the varieties of external temperature.

Evaporation often fills the air with deadly miasma. The fever and ague is supposed to be produced in this way. Considerable effect is also produced upon the bulk of gases, and it becomes a point of great interest to ascertain the amount, especially when delicate experiments are to be performed.

The atmosphere, of course, always contains a portion of watery vapor. At the freezing point it contains $\frac{1}{480}$ of its volume, and the higher the temperature, the more vapor is it capable of sustaining. The instruments for measuring the amount of vapor in the air, and other gases, are called

Hygrometers. These vary in form, but may all be reduced to three principles.

1. The first is founded on the property of some substances to elongate when placed in a moist atmosphere, and to contract when dry. The human hair possesses this property in an eminent degree, and is the substance employed by Saussure.

2. The second kind of hygrometer depends on the rapidity of evaporation, the temperature and pressure being the same; the more vapor there is in the air, the slower will the process go forward. Leslie's hygrometer is constructed on this principle.

3. The third kind depends on the fact that, if a cold body be introduced into moist air, the moisture will condense on it; as is sometimes seen on the surface of glass and earthen vessels filled with cold water, and is an indication of rain. The temperature at which the moisture is condensed is called the *dew point.* On this principle the hygrometer of Prof. Daniell is constructed, and is the best instrument now in use.

Thus, *a b* (Fig. 27) are two balls of glass, connected by a tube. The ball *b* is made of black glass, and contains a little ether, into which the bulb of a small thermometer is immersed. The

Fig. 27.
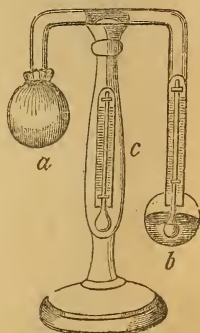
air is driven out of both bulbs, so that they contain nothing
but ether and its vapor.   On the standard *c* there is a ther-
mometer to measure the temperature of the air.

Exp. Moisten *a* with ether, and the cold produced by its evaporation
will condense the vapor of ether which rises up in *b*, and will cause a re-
duction of its temperature.   At the moment the dew begins to form on the
glass *b*, the difference of temperature between *b* and *c* will show the *dew
point*, and thus we ascertain the quantity of moisture in the atmosphere at
that time.

It will be seen that the *dew point* will vary with the quan-
tity of water in the atmosphere.   The difference between the
temperature of the air and the dew point will be greatest
when the air is very dry, and least when it is very moist.

A more simple apparatus has been invented by Mr. Jones
of London, which is said to give tolerably accurate results.
It consists of a delicate Mercurial Thermometer, the bulb of
which is about three quarters covered with muslin.   Ether
is placed on the muslin to produce cold, and the dew is de-
posited on the uncovered portion of the bulb.   The tempe-
rature at which the dew begins to form, is indicated by the
height of the mercury in the tube, as in an ordinary ther-
mometer.

The quantity of moisture in the atmosphere, as indicated
by either of the above instruments, is dependent on the tem-
perature and pressure ; hence the dew point will vary with
the height to which we ascend.   It is on this principle that
air on the surface of the earth when it is carried up over high
mountains, deposits a portion of water in the form of clouds,
which are so often seen resting on the high summits.   On
this principle also rain is often produced by the rising up of
currents of air.   The air expands as the pressure is dimin-
ished, grows colder, and its moisture is precipitated.

*Application of the Laws of Insensible Caloric to the Explana
tion of Natural Phenomena.*

1. We have seen that, when solids are converted into li-
quids, they absorb large quantities of caloric.   Hence the
process of *thawing*, contrary to the common belief, is a
freezing process.   Ice, in becoming water, absorbs 140° of
sensible caloric ; hence countries surrounded by water are

cooler in the spring than those where less ice is formed dur
ing the winter. *

2. Liquids, in passing to vapors, absorb sensible caloric.
In the vaporization of water, nearly 1000° of caloric are ab-
sorbed. It is therefore a much more powerful cooling pro-
cess than the liquefaction of ice; hence the heat of warm
countries is greatly reduced by the constant formation of
vapor. This is the reason why the transition from the cold
of winter to the heat of summer is not sudden, but gradual;
the ice and the water cannot obtain caloric in sufficient
quantities to convert them into vapor.

3. When vapors and gases become liquids, they give out
large quantities of caloric; hence it is usually warmer after
a rain, a large quantity of caloric being evolved by the con-
densation of the vapor in the atmosphere. If, however, the
earth is dry and hot, the heat converts the water into vapor,
and renders the air cooler.

4. Liquids, in becoming solids, give out caloric; hence
the process of *freezing* is a *heating* process. To prevent
some substances from freezing, we have only to place them
near those which congeal at a higher temperature; thus
water placed in a cellar will prevent vegetables from freezing,
because they require a lower temperature than water to
freeze them; before they reach the point of congelation, the
freezing of the water renders its insensible caloric sensible,
and prevents them from attaining it.

By the process of converting water into ice, — a process
constantly going forward when the thermometer stands at
32° Fahr., — large quantities of caloric are thrown off into the
atmosphere; hence the shores of a country are warmer in
the winter than the interior; hence, too, the approach of the
cold season is gradual, — the greatest degree of cold rarely
occurs till after the winter solstice, twentieth of December
Were these laws suspended, September and March would
be of equal temperatures. June would be the warmest, and
December the coldest month in the year.

SECT. 3. SOURCES OF CALORIC.

The principal sources of caloric are,

1. The sun.

2. Chemical action, including electricity, galvanism, and combustion.

3. Condensation by mechanical action, including percussion and friction.

4. Vital action.

1. *Sun.* The heat produced by the sun varies with the kind and color of the surface, according to principles already noticed. The temperature produced by their direct action is seldom more than 120°; but, when the rays are concentrated by means of convex lenses, or concave mirrors, a very intense heat is produced. Lenses have been constructed concentrating sufficient heat to melt some of the most refractory metals; but the most intense heat, at any considerable distance, is produced by several concave mirrors, which reflect the rays to one focus. Metals and minerals have thus been melted at the distance of 40 feet, and wood ignited at the distance of 120 feet from the mirrors.

2. *Chemical Action.* Caloric is often produced by chemical and electrical action. A very great heat occurs in the phenomena of *combustion*, which may be defined to be the disengagement of light and heat in substances by chemical action. But the most intense heat is produced by voltaic or electrical action.

3. *Condensation.* It has been already stated that substances develop caloric by diminution of their bulk, as when gases pass to liquids and to solids. A fire is often kindled by rubbing pieces of dry wood against each other; heavy machinery, if not properly oiled, often ignites wood; axletrees of carriages are burned off; the sides of vessels are set on fire by the descent of the cable. The *friction* in these cases condenses the parts, and the caloric is developed. So,

when iron is struck with a hammer several times, it becomes hot. Fire is also struck from steel with any hard substance, like flint. This is denominated *percussion*.

4. *Vital Action.* The caloric developed by vital action has been shown to be due to the combination of the oxygen of the air, with the carbon and hydrogen of the worn-out tissues of the body. It is a process of slow combustion.

Sources of Cold. The sources of cold are, *liquefaction, vaporization,* and *rarefaction.*

Sect. 4. Nature of Caloric.

On this subject there are two theories. Sir H. Davy and some others considered caloric as a property of matter; and Sir William Herschel and Prof. Airy have attempted to explain its nature by supposing that there exists a subtile ether, which pervades all space and all matter, and that caloric is the effect of vibrations made in this fluid, somewhat similar to the vibrations of the air which produce the sensation of sound. This theory is called the *undulatory theory*, and is most favorably received by chemists.

Sir Isaac Newton supposed that caloric was a subtile, material fluid. If caloric is material, it is matter under very peculiar circumstances. So far as we can determine, it possesses few, if any, of the common properties of matter; its particles are self-repellent, opposed to cohesive attraction. If it is material, its particles must be exceedingly small, as they penetrate all other substances, however dense. They must also be influenced by gravity; but no quantity of them, however great, possess the least *appreciable* weight. It possesses neither extension nor impenetrability; but if it is mat-er, it must have these properties.

CHAPTER II.

LIGHT.

The physica. properties of light belong to the science of Optics, a branch of Natural Philosophy. But light has also chemical properties, which come within the province of Chemistry.

I. *Physical Properties of Light.* Light is emitted from every visible point of a luminous object, and is equally distributed on all sides, if not interrupted, diverging like radii drawn from the centre to the circumference of a sphere. It travels at the rate of 192,000 miles in a second, requiring about eight minutes to pass from the sun to our earth. Its velocity is so great, that the light emitted in the firing of a cannon, or a sky-rocket, will be seen by different spectators at the same instant, whatever may be their respective distances from it; the time required for light to travel one hundred or one thousand miles being inappreciable by our senses. When light falls upon any body, it is either *reflected, transmitted* and *refracted,* or *absorbed.*

II. *Reflection.* The reflection of light is influenced by the same circumstances as that of caloric, and follows the same laws; the angles of incidence and reflection are equal (Fig. 6, page 31.) It is owing to the reflection of light that we are able to see the various objects in nature, an image of the object being formed by the reflected rays upon the retina of the eye.

III. *Refraction.* When a ray passes from a rarer to a denser medium, as from air into water, it is refracted towards a perpendicular to the refracting surface: this property is called *refrangibility.*

Thus (Fig. 28), *l* is the ray before it reaches the refracting surface 3. Instead of passing directly through to *a*, it is bent towards the perpendicular, to the surface *p*, and pro-

ceeds to *r*. But in passing from a denser to a rarer medium, it is refracted from a perpendicular to the refracting surface. Thus, in passing from *r*, it is refracted at the surface towards *l*, instead of proceeding to *d*. Hence a stick partly in water appears bent. Objects viewed through some substances, as Iceland spar, appear double in consequence of a *double refraction.*
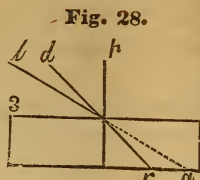
Fig. 28.

IV. *Decomposition of Light.* Solar and stellar light contain three kinds of rays: —

1. *Colorific*, or rays of color.

2. *Calorific*, or rays of heat.

3. *Chemical rays*, or those which produce chemical effects.

1. *Colorific Rays.* These may be separated into seven primary colors: red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet.

Fig. 29.

Violet,	7
Indigo,	6
Blue,	5
Green,	4
Yellow,	3
Orange,	2
Red,	1
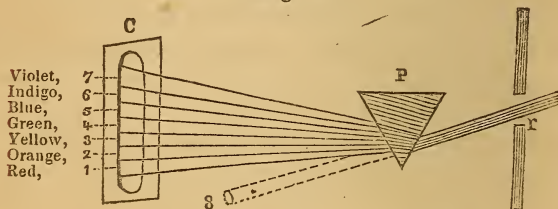
The instrument by which this separation is effected is a triangular prism (Fig. 29) of glass, ice, or any transparent substance. A beam of light *r* is admitted into a dark room, and, passing obliquely through two sides of the prism *p*, is refracted by both. The different colors are separated, because some are refracted more than others; and, instead of a white spot after the beam passes through the prism, as at 8, there appears a long, colored surface *c*, called the *solar spectrum.*

Dr. Wollaston supposes that there are but four colors, viz.: red, green, blue, and violet, occupying spaces in the proportion of 16, 23, 36, 28.

According to Sir D. Brewster, there are but three colors, red, yellow, and blue, a mixture of which produces the others.

The prismatic colors differ in their *illuminating power*. This is greatest in the yellow and green, and diminishes each way to the violet and red.

2. *Calorific Rays.* The calorific rays exist in the greatest intensity in, and near the red rays, and diminish rapidly towards the violet; the greatest heat is sometimes entirely without the red rays; this, however, depends upon the kind of substances used to separate the rays; in some cases, it is quite on the verge of the orange.   *The refrangibility*, then, of the calorific rays is much less than that of the colorific. This is shown also by the fact that, when the solar rays are concentrated by a convex lens, the focus of heat is farther from the lens than that of light.

3. *Chemical Rays.* On the side of the spectrum, a little beyond the violet, are invisible rays, which have a peculiar effect upon chemical changes. They are most powerful on the verge of the violet, and diminish towards the red.

1. *Photographic drawing depends upon the influence of these rays.*

Exp. Cover one side of a plate of glass with beeswax, colored with lamp-black, and draw a picture on it by removing the wax with a sharp point. If then a solution of salt in water be spread on a piece of white paper, and the nitrate of silver in solution poured upon it, the chloride of silver will be formed. Place the paper then over the glass, and the sun's rays passing through, where the wax is removed, will form a picture upon the paper, by changing the chloride black wherever they strike it.

Exp. Soak a piece of white paper in a saturated solution of bichromate of potassa, dry it rapidly, and put it in a dark room. Place over it prints, dried plants, etc., and expose it to the sun; the objects will be represented yellow on an orange ground. To fix the drawing, wash it carefully, to dissolve the salt which has not been acted upon by the light. The object will then appear white on an orange ground.

If sulphate of indigo be used with the bichromate of potassa, it will give to the object and to the paper different shades of green.

2. *Daguerreotype.* A method of fixing the images of objects on metal has lately been devised by Daguerre

Exp. Expose a plate of silvered copper, well cleaned with dilute nitric acid, to the vapor of iodine; an extremely thin coat of iodide of silver will be formed. Place the plate in the *Camera Obscura* for eight or ten minutes, in such a position that the light may come from the object, and an image of it be formed on the plate; then expose it, at an angle of 45°, to the vapor of mercury; heat it to 167° Fahr., and the images will appear. The plate should then be exposed to the action of hyposulphite of soda, and washed in a large quantity of distilled water.*

Magnetic Rays. Dr. Morrichini, of Rome, discovered that the more refrangible rays possessed the property of rendering iron magnetic; Mrs. Somerville confirmed this statement by magnetizing a sewing needle with less than two hours' exposure to the violet rays; but others have not been so successful, and it is questionable whether these rays possess this property.

V. *Absorption.* The rays of light are separated by *absorption.* When light falls upon a substance, more or less of it disappears like sensible caloric.

1. The different colors are absorbed variously by different surfaces. This is the cause of the great variety of colors; for, when all the rays are absorbed except the red, and these only reflected, the body is red. Thus, in colored bodies, only a part of the rays can be reflected; and to the admixture of the different colors in the reflected portion, is owing all the beautiful variety of color.

2. *The absorption of light* varies with the chemical constitution; hence, by the action of chemical agents upon each other, every variety of color can be produced at pleasure.

Exp. Into a little chloride of calcium, in solution, pour a few drops of sulphuric acid; a white solid will be formed.

Exp. Into a dilute solution of persulphate of iron pour the tincture of gall; fine black ink will be formed.

Exp. Into an infusion of purple cabbage put a drop or two of sulphuric acid; a beautiful red will be produced.

Exp. Nitrate of mercury and infusion of gall will form an orange color.

Exp. Nitrate of lead and hydriodic acid, yellow.

Exp. Vegetable infusion and an alkali, green.

Exp. Aquæ ammonia and sulphate of copper, blue.

Exp. Ferro-cyanide of potassa and sulphate of iron, indigo.

Exp. Red and indigo, mixed, form violet.

3. When all the rays are absorbed, so that none can be reflected, the body is black; for the same reason, everything

is black in total darkness. If none of the rays are absorbed, and all are reflected, the body is white.*

VI. *Ignition and Incandescence.*   The phenomena of ignition and incandescence include all kinds of artificial light, which is obtained by the combinations of inflammable matter, or the heating of non-combustible bodies.   Solids begin to emit light in the dark at 700°, and in the light at 1000° F.   Gases require a higher temperature; flame is incandescent gas.   The color of the rays depends upon the kind of substances and the degree of heat: the white light of oil, candles, etc., when transmitted through a prism, has but three primary colors — red, yellow and green.   The dazzling light emitted by lime intensely heated, gives the prismatic colors almost as bright as the solar spectrum Different substances assume different colors when intensely heated.   Chemical rays exist very feebly in most artificial light, but in the intense light of lime, under the compound blowpipe, they are more easily detected.

VII. *Phosphorescence.*   There are many substances in nature which possess the property of *shining in the dark*, without the emission of caloric.   These are said to be phosphorescent, and are known by the term phosphori, (although there is no phosphorus connected with the phenomena.)

1. *Solar Phosphori.* Many bodies acquire this property on exposure to the solar rays for a few hours. Such, for example, is Canton's phosphorus, a composition made by mixing three parts of calcined oyster shells with one of the flowers of sulphur, and exposing the mixture for an hour to a strong heat in a covered crucible. Chloride of calcium (Homberg's phosphorus) possesses the same property; also, nitrate of lime, (Baldwin's phosphorus,) and a variety of other substances, such as carbonate of baryta, strontia and lime, the diamond fluor-spar or chlorophane, apatite, boracic acid, etc. Scarcely any phosphori act unless they have been exposed to light.

When phosphorescence ceases, it can be restored by a second exposure to the light, or by passing electric discharges through the substance.

2. *Phosphorescence from Moderate Heat.*   Chlorophane and several mineral substances require to be heated before

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* Colors have an important influence on the absorption and disengagement of odorous matters. White bodies are the least absorbent and dark the most so.

they phosphoresce. Lime is a remarkable instance; when heated, it gives out a dazzling white light, too intense to look upon without injury to the eyes. Light is also emitted during the crystallization of many salts, as the sulphate of potassa and fluoride of sodium.

Exp. Put three drachms of the vitreous arsenous acid into a matrass, with an ounce and a half of hydrochloric acid, and half an ounce of water; boil the mixture for ten minutes, and then suffer it to cool slowly. When crystallization commences, each little crystal will be attended by a spark; on sudden agitation, great numbers of crystals shoot up, accompanied with an equal number of sparks; if larger quantities are taken, and the vessel shaken at the right moment, the emission of light is so powerful as to illuminate a dark room.

3. *Animal and Vegetable Phosphori.* Some animal and vegetable substances emit light at common temperatures, without exposure to the sun's rays. This property is remarkable in some fish, as the mackerel; the light makes its appearance just before putrefaction commences, and ceases when it is completely established. Some species of decayed wood possess this property in a remarkable degree.

VIII. *Photometers.* It is sometimes desirable to measure the intensity of light, emitted from different objects, and an instrument has been invented for this purpose, called the *Photometer*, or light measurer. The principal one employed for this purpose is that of Leslie.

It consists of a very delicate and small differential thermometer, one bulb of which is made of black glass, and the whole is enclosed in a small glass tube. The white ball transmits all the light and heat, and is of course unaffected; the black ball absorbs all the rays, and heats the air within, so as to cause the liquid to rise. Its action of course depends upon the heat produced by the absorption of light.

Some objections to this instrument have been stated by Turner.

Count Rumford's Photometer determines the comparative strength of lights, by a comparison of the shadows of bodies.

Sources of Light. These are similar to those of caloric — the *sun, stars, chemical action, mechanical action,* and *caloric.*

IX. *Nature of Light.* Light and caloric have been regarded by some as identical. Newton supposed that light

was a material, subtile fluid, which emanated from luminous bodies in all directions in right lines, and produced the sensation of vision, by falling upon the retina of the eye; this is termed the *Newtonian theory*. But Descartes, Huygens, and Euler, proposed a different theory, which has been lately revived by Sir John Herschel and Prof. Airy. This theory supposes that light is produced by vibrations in an elastic medium, which pervades all space, and that vision is the effect of these vibrations, meeting the retina, in the same manner as pulsations of air impress the nerve of hearing, and produce the sensation of sound. At present, the strongest evidence is in favor of this theory, which has received the name of the *undulatory theory*. (See Sir J. Herschel's article on Light in the *Encyclopedia Metropolitana*.) Either of the above theories answers the purpose of classifying the facts, and it is not material which is adopted.

CHAPTER III.

ELECTRICITY.

The word *electricity* is derived from the Greek name for amber,* a substance which possessed the property of attracting light bodies when rubbed.

1. If a piece of sealing-wax, or a glass rod, be rubbed with a dry woollen or silk cloth, each becomes capable of attracting and repelling light substances. In this state each is said to be *electrified*, or *electrically excited*. When friction is applied to many other substances, they exhibit similar phenomena. The cause of this attraction and repulsion is ascribed to an agent called *electricity*, and when it is excited by friction, it is designated by the title of *common electricity*.

2. If a plate of copper and a plate of zinc, having copper wires soldered to each, be immersed in acidulated water, and the ends of the wires brought into contact, they will

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* *Ηλεκτρον.*

exhibit similar phenomena of attraction and repulsion. When electricity is excited in this way, there is always a chemical action between the metal and the liquid, and it is called *Galvanism*, in honor of Galvani, who made the discovery; also *Voltaic electricity*, from Volta, who first demonstrated its existence as independent of the animal system.

Sect. 1. Common or Frictional Electricity.

Common electricity is generally excited by the friction of one substance upon another.

1. If a piece of sealing wax, or any resinous substance, be rubbed with a silk cloth, and a pith ball, suspended by a thread, be brought near it, the ball will be at first attracted, and then repelled.

2. If a rod of glass, or other vitreous substance, be rubbed in a similar manner, and brought near the ball, it will attract it, while the sealing-wax will repel it.

3. If two balls be each electrified by the sealing-wax, or by the glass, they will repel each other; but if one is electrified by the wax, and the other by the glass, they will attract each other; hence, when friction is applied to resinous and vitreous bodies, opposite effects are produced. The state induced by friction upon the glass, was called by Dr. Franklin *positive*, and that induced upon the wax *negative*, and the substances were said to be positively or negatively electrified.

Theories. 1. Franklin supposed that electricity pervaded matter generally, and that friction tended to bring it upon the surface of bodies, or drive it from them; that it was in its nature self-repellent, but possessed a powerful attraction for common matter; when a body was electrified *positively*, it had more than its share of electricity; when it was electrified *negatively*, it had less than its natural portion.

2. Du Fay supposed that there were two fluids: the one developed by the friction of the glass he called *vitreous*, which answers to the positive electricity of Franklin, and the other, developed by the friction of the wax, he called *resinous*, which corresponds with the negative electricity of Franklin. Each

fluid repels itself, and attracts the other. It follows from this theory, that *substances electrified by the same fluid repel, and those electrified by the opposite fluids attract, each other,* and friction only tends to separate them.

The existence of the two fluids may be shown by the *Gold Leaf Electrometer,** (Fig. 30,) which consists of two strips of gold leaf suspended by a brass cap and wire, in a glass cylinder. When electrified with either kind of electricity, the leaves diverge.

Fig. 30.

But if, when the leaves diverge with negative electricity, a substance excited positively be brought near, the leaves will collapse.

Exp. Bring excited sealing-wax in contact with the brass knob *a,* the leaves will diverge with negative electricity. Place now, excited glass upon the knob, and the leaves will come together, because the positive fluid restores the equilibrium. If pith balls be suspended by a wire or thread, similar effects may be produced.

Some substances, such as glass and resin, retain the electricity upon their surfaces when excited, and are hence called *non-conductors* of electricity.

Other substances, as the metals, do not retain electricity upon their surfaces, unless they are surrounded by non-conductors, but convey it away, or oppose no barriers to the union of the two fluids; such bodies are called *conductors* of electricity. The metals are all conductors; dry air, glass, sulphur, and resins, are non-conductors; water, damp wood, moist air, alcohol, and some oils, are *imperfect* conductors. The non-conductors are called *insulators.*

Some substances exhibit signs of electricity when heated, such as tourmalin, topaz, diamond, beryl.

Electrical Machine. The instrument by which the phenomena of common electricity may be best exhibited, is the *electrical machine†* (Fig. 31,) which consists of a cylinder, or plate of glass G, revolving on an axis, and subjected to the friction of a rubber R of leather or silk, upon which is spread a thin coat of amalgam, composed of tin and mercury,

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* Ηλεκτρον and μετρον, a measurer of electricity.
† In the absence of an electrical machine, many experiments may be performed with a rod of glass, or sealing-wax, two inches in diameter, and rubbed with a silk handkerchief

Fig. 31.
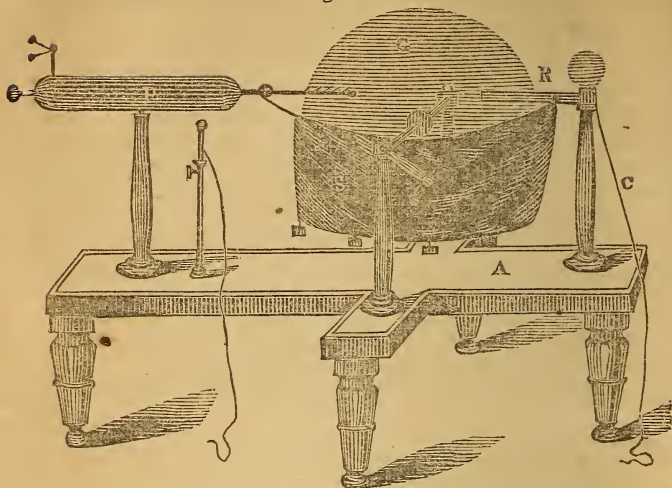
insulated by a glass pillar, and communicating with the ground by a brass chain, C. Attached to the machine is a cylindrical metallic conductor, P, which is also insulated by a glass pillar.

When the machine is in operation, vitreous electricity flows from the rubber and glass, by means of fine points, to the prime conductor, P, and resinous electricity passes in an opposite direction. If the hand be placed upon the conductor, currents of electricity will pass in opposite directions, the vitreous passing into the body from P, and the resinous down the chain C to the ground. But if the hand be held at a little distance from the conductor, a spark will dart through the air, and cause a prickling sensation, accompanied by a slight report, with light and heat. The sound is produced by the collapse of the air, as the fluid forces a passage through it; and the light and heat are supposed to result from the sudden condensation of the air, as in the fire syringe.

Induction. If an insulated body be brought near the prime conductor, it will manifest signs of electricity opposite to that of the conductor, on the side nearest the conductor, and similar to the conductor on the other side, while the centre of the body will be neutral. The electricity, in this case, is induced by the presence of the electrified conductor; and

the process is called *induction.* Several insulated conductors placed contiguous, will exhibit the same phenomena if a communication be made between the last and the ground.

Thus, (Fig. 32,) let A represent the positive conductor of an electric machine, *b* and *c* insulated conductors, with a chain passing to the ground.
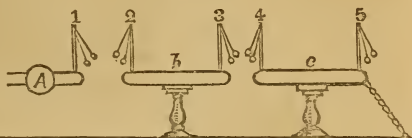
The conductor *b* will be electrified by induction, as will be indicated by the attached balls. Thus 1, being positive, will attract the balls 2, which are rendered negative by induction. The balls 3 are also rendered positive, 4 negative, and 5 positive, while the centres *b c* will remain neutral.

Theory. The phenomena of *induction* has led to the true theory of attraction and repulsion. The reason why an excited body attracts another is, that it induces in it an opposite electrical state. Induction is therefore an essential function, both in the development and continuance of electrical currents, and consists in a polarized state of the particles, or positive and negative points, induced by the presence of an electrified body.

Application of the Theory. According to this theory, an excited body attracts light substances, because it induces in them an opposite state of electricity.

1. On moving the hand towards the prime conductor, it is electrified negatively by induction ; when a spark is received, the equilibrium is restored.

2. When a cloud, positively or negatively electrified, passes over a tower, or a tree, it induces an opposite state in them, and a stroke of lightning follows in consequence of the attraction between the two accumulated fluids ; hence the utility of lightning-rods to form a communication between the clouds and the ground.

3. The action of the *Leyden Jar* is due to induction It consists of a glass jar, lined on the inner and outer surfaces, save a few inches near the mouth, with tin foil. Through the stopper, made of dry wood or sealing-wax, a brass rod com-

municates with the inner surface. When positive electricity is applied to the inside, it drives off the same fluid on the outer surface, and induces the negative fluid. These fluids exert a strong mutual attraction upon each other, through the glass, and enable both to accumulate in larger quantities than they would do on separate conductors. When a communication is made between the inner and outer surfaces, the equilibrium is suddenly restored, accompanied by a sharp report. When several jars are connected by their outer surfaces, and also by their inner surfaces, they constitute an electrical battery.

4. The action of the *Electrophorus* (bearer of electricity) (Fig. 33) depends upon the same principle. It may be constructed by pouring melted resin into the cover of a firkin, taking care, when it cools, to render the surface even. Adapt to this a circular piece of board covered with tin foil, and fix a glass rod in the centre for a handle. This instru-

Fig. 33.

ment may be used instead of the machine for charging Leyden Jars.
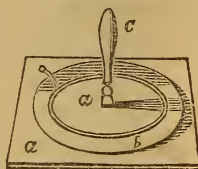
Electrometers, or *Electroscopes.* These are instruments for detecting the presence of electricity, as in the *Gold Leaf Electrometer*, (page 75,) or for determining the degree of its tension, or attracting and repelling power. For this last purpose, the *Balance Electrometer* is used.

Fig. 34.
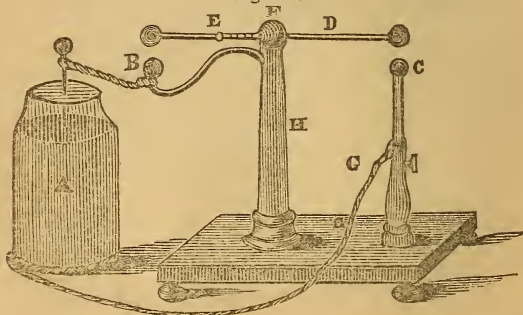
Thus A (Fig. 34) is a Leyden jar, which may be con

nected with the prime conductor of an electric machine; B, a brass ball connected with D, E; C, another ball, with a chain, G, connecting it with the table or the outside of the jar; D, a brass rod balanced at the centre, and insulated by the glass post H; E is a ring which may be placed at any distance from F, bringing the ball in contact with B. If, now, the jar be positively electrified, the ball on the end of E will be repelled, C will be electrified negatively by induction, and there will be a powerful attraction between C and the ball on the end of D, which will bring them together, and the equilibrium will be restored. The force of attraction will be measured by the distance between the balls and the weight applied at E. With a powerful electrical battery, successive vibrations may be produced in the beam, and a bright spark and loud report produced at each contact of the balls.

Laws of the Accumulation of the Electric Fluid.

1. Free electricity is always accumulated upon the surface of an insulated conductor, and does not penetrate its substance; hence the quantity does not depend upon the *quantity* of matter in the conductor, but upon the *extent* of surface.

2. The mode in which electricity is distributed over the surface of conductors, depends upon their form. On a sphere, it forms a uniform stratum. On an ellipsoid, the stratum is thickest on the extremities of the longer axis, and, as these extremities approach to the form of points, the accumulation increases till the tension becomes so great, that it flows off into the atmosphere; hence electricity cannot be retained on a conductor which has points attached to it.

3. This tendency to escape is due to the repulsion of its particles.

4. Coulomb proved by his Torsion Electrometer, that the repulsion of two bodies similarly electrified, and the attraction of two oppositely electrified, varies inversely, as the square of the distance between them.

Sect. 2. Voltaic Electricity, or Galvanism.

History. In the year 1791, Galvani, an Italian Professor of Anatomy at Bologna, discovered that if a silver probe were made to touch the crural nerve of a recently killed frog, and a strip of zinc the muscle, violent contractions would be produced at each contact of the two metals — the same effect as

is produced by an electric spark. Hence he concluded that the phenomena were due to electricity, generated by the animal system. Some years after, Prof. Volta, of Pavia, discovered that the animal system was not necessary to the development of this kind of electricity, which he proved by the construction of a pile of insulated plates, of different metals, called the *Voltaic pile.* This discovery has given to this form of exciting electricity the epithet *voltaic.*

But the identity of the agent concerned in galvanism, and of that in the common electrical machine, is now a matter of demonstration. *Magnetism* has been supposed to be due to the same agent, and also *chemical affinity.* But it is more in accordance with all the phenomena to suppose that those agents are not identical, but, in many respects, distinct forces. " Galvanism," according to Dr. Hare, " is light, heat, and electricity, combined."

I. *Simple Voltaic Circles. Exp.* Place a piece of zinc upon the tongue, and a piece of silver under it: whenever the projecting edges of these metals are brought into contact, a peculiar sensation will be perceived, and, if the plates are large enough, a flash of light. This effect is not due to electricity generated by the animal system, but to that developed

in the metals; for if the same plates, or larger plates, be placed in water, (Fig. 35,) and the connection made, electricity will be excited; feeble indeed, but in sufficient quantities to be detected by a proper apparatus. If, however, a few drops of sulphuric or nitric acid be added to the water, and the ends of the plates C and Z brought

Fig. 35.

into contact, or by means of wires soldered to the plates, bubbles of hydrogen gas will rise from the surface of the copper plate C, and electricity will be developed in larger quantities. The currents will continue to circulate from one plate to the other, as long as the wires are kept in contact, but will cease when they are separated. This is a case of a *simple voltaic circle.* The direction of the positive current is indicated by the position of the arrows. When the wires are in contact, the circuit is said to be *closed*, and a current of positive electricity flows through the water from the zinc plate Z to the copper C, and from the copper along the con-

ducting wires to the zinc. A current of negative electricity, on the theory of two fluids, passes in an opposite direction. When the wires are separated, the circuit is said to be *broken*
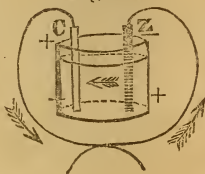
The contact may be made above the water, or in it, or the plates may touch each other throughout, or be soldered together; in either case electricity will be excited; but if one plate is out of the liquid, no currents can be produced.

A simple voltaic circle may be formed of one metal and two liquids, provided a stronger chemical action is induced on one side of the plate, than on the other. Simple voltaic circles may also be formed of various materials; but, generally, they consist of one perfect and two imperfect conductors of electricity, or of two perfect and one imperfect conductors.

Metals and prepared charcoal are perfect, water and aqueous solutions imperfect conductors. But, whatever be the construction, *chemical* action seems absolutely necessary to the development of voltaic currents.

The most common and convenient form of the simple battery, is that of two cylinders of copper, C, (Fig. 36,) the one within the other, separated about one inch, with a bottom soldered on, so as to contain the exciting liquid, *a*, between them, and a cylinder of zinc, Z, placed

Fig. 36.

between the two cylinders of copper, and insulated by ivory handles The two plates are furnished with wires, terminated by the cups *b b*, which contain a globule of mercury. The connection is made by means of wires dipped into the mercury in the cups. Or, the copper and zinc may be coiled around each other, so that each surface of zinc may be opposed to one of copper, but separated from it by a small interval. By thus exposing a large surface of zinc to a similar surface of copper, Dr. Hare was enabled to melt the most refractory metals, and from this circumstance gave it the name of *Calorimotor.*
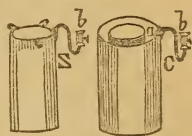
II. *Compound Voltaic Circles.* Compound circles consist of a series of simple circles, for the purpose of increasing the intensity of voltaic currents. The first combination of this kind was made by *Volta, and is called the voltaic pile.*

4*

Fig. 37

1. This pile consists of zinc and copper plates, (Fig. 37,) placed alternately one above another, with strips of woollen cloth moistened with salt water between each pair. By connecting the top and bottom plates, currents of electricity will be set in motion.

2. But other forms of voltaic circles are now in use. The most convenient is that invented by Wollaston. It consists of any convenient number of zinc and copper plates, so arranged, that each zinc plate is surrounded by two of copper.

A (Fig. 38) is a trough to contain the exciting liquid; B a case passing around the plates, and connected by chains to the windlass C, by means of which the plates can be lowered into the liquid, or raised to any position required.* EE are small hand-vices attached to the poles. The zinc plates are confined in copper cases, insulated by wood at each end. The copper cases are separated $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, by pasteboard, which, with the wood, is saturated by oil and wax. The connection between the zinc and copper plates is made by strips of copper soldered to the zinc of one pair, and to the copper of the adjacent pair; by this construction, the power of the battery is increased nearly one half.

Fig. 38.

As each zinc plate is connected to the adjacent copper plate, the currents are urged along from one to the other, in opposite directions, till they meet at the poles.

The size and number of plates may be varied at pleasure. The largest battery ever constructed is that of Mr. Children,

* In some batteries, the plates are stationary, and the trough is raised and lowered. This is the most convenient construction, especially in large batteries.

he plates of which were 6 ft. long and 2 ft. 8 inches broad. The most convenient size is 4 inches by 6. A battery containing 200 or 300 plates, and thrown into vigorous action, is nearly as powerful as one much larger.* The battery of Dr. Hare is called a *Deflagrator*, from its surprising power of burning the metals.

The direction of the currents in this apparatus is the same as in the simple circles: positive electricity passes from the zinc through the liquid to the copper plates, and is given off at the copper pole of the battery, while negative electricity takes the opposite direction, and appears at the zinc or negative pole.

During the action of the battery, all the hydrogen evolved in the process is given off at the surface of the copper, and the weight of the hydrogen during any given time, and that of the zinc dissolved, will be as 1 to 32.3, which is the ratio of their chemical equivalents. This shows the close connection between electricity, thus excited, and chemical affinity.

Fig. 39.
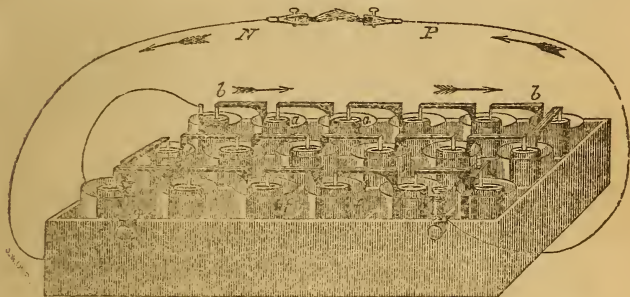
2. *Grove's Battery.*—One of the most powerful as well as economical batteries now in use is the one constructed by Prof. Grove. It consists of a series of platinum and amalgamated zinc plates arranged in the following manner. The zinc plates are cast in the form of hollow cylinders, *a, a,*

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* In experimenting with the battery, the plates should not be immersed in the liquid but a few minutes at a time; by raising and lowering them for each experiment, their vigorous action will be kept up much longer; or the troughs may be so constructed that, by a partial revolution, the exciting liquid may be withdrawn from the plates, or thrown upon them at pleasure.

(Fig. 39.) with a projection, *b, b,* about two inches in length, to the end of which strips of platinum foil are soldered. Within the zinc cylinders small earthen cups are placed. These are then put in half-pint glass tumblers *f f ;* the zinc in one tumbler and the platinum foil, attached to its end, in the earthen cup of the next plate. The zinc is the negative, and the platinum the positive pole or electrode.

To charge the battery, sulphuric acid, diluted with 5 or 6 parts water, is put into the tumblers to act upon the zinc, and strong nitric acid into the earthen cups in contact with the platinum foil.

When the poles are united, positive electricity is generated in the zinc plate at the negative end of the battery, and passes, with the hydrogen of the decomposed water, into the porous cup, to the platinum plate, as indicated by the arrows. The nitric acid is decomposed by the current, the hydrogen unites with its oxygen, and the binoxide of nitrogen escapes into the air. The current then passes to the zinc plate, thence from zinc to platinum, through the conducting fluids, to the platinum or positive pole. The negative current passes in the opposite direction, commencing at the platinum plate and passing to the negative pole. 20 or 25 cups will produce effects fully equal to one hundred or more of zinc and copper plates. The intensity of the action may be kept up for a very long time ; hence such batteries are called *Sustaining Batteries.*

Smee's Battery is, however, the most simple, and the most easily managed of any which have yet been noticed. It consists of silver and amalgamated zinc plates, (Fig. 40.)*

The silver plate is covered with platinum, in fine division called platinum black, and is placed between two zinc plates, *b b* (Fig. 40) and secured by a clamp. The battery is then charged by placing it in a half-pint tumbler containing diluted sulphuric acid. The action commences whenever the poles *s z* are in contact, and ceases when they are separated. This battery is remarkable for affording a constant current of electricity for days and weeks together ; hence its use in *electro-metallurgy.* It is distinguished for the *quantity* of electricity it is capable of generating, but is surpassed by most others for *intensity* of action. By increasing the number of

* Manufactured by B. Pike & Son, N. Y.

Fig. 40.
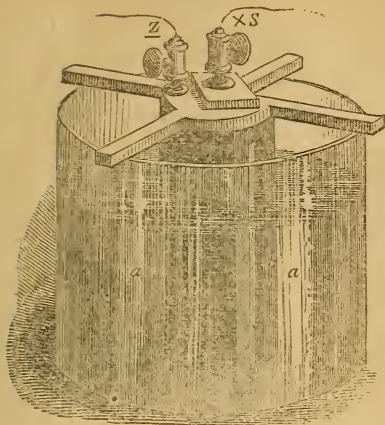
plates, however, sufficient power is generated for most ex-
periments. For experiments in electro-magnetism, it is far
preferable to any other. Instead of the silver plate, one of
lead covered with silver, and then with platinum black, is
said to work better than a thin plate of silver.

Theories of Galvanism.

On this subject there are three theories: 1. The first
originated with Volta, who conceived that electric currents
are set in motion, and kept up, solely *by contact* of the dif-
ferent metals. He regarded the interposed solution merely
as a conductor to convey the electricity from one point to
another.

2. The second theory was proposed by Dr. Wollaston,
who supposed that *chemical action* was the sole cause of
exciting and continuing the voltaic currents; and the fact
that no sensible effects are produced by a combination of
conductors, which do not act chemically upon each other, is
the strongest proof of its truth: even in the *voltaic pile,* the
energy of the action depends upon the oxidation of the zinc.

3. The third theory was suggested by Sir H. Davy, and is intermediate between the two preceding. He supposed that the electric equilibrium was disturbed by *contact* of the metals, and the electric currents kept up by *chemical action.*

The theory of Wollaston is now generally embraced.

Laws of the Action of Voltaic Circles.

Electricians distinguish between *quantity* and *intensity* in Galvanism, as in ordinary electricity.

Quantity refers to the amount of the electric fluid set in motion; *tension*, or *intensity*, to the energy or effort with which a current is impelled. *Common* electricity has great *tension; voltaic*, great *quantity*, — and this is the principal difference between them.

1. In the broken circuit, there is a strain to establish an electric current, because without this, oxidation cannot take place. There exists between the exciting fluid and the zinc, a desire, as it were, for chemical action, which cannot be gratified until, by closing the circuit, a door is opened for the escape and circulation of electricity. This strain or tension is great, according as the affinity between the exciting fluid and the zinc is great. Currents of high *tension* are urged forward with greater impetuosity than feeble ones, and hence they more readily overcome obstacles to their passage.

2. Currents from a single pair of plates have not a high *tension;* but if the plates are large, a great *quantity* of electricity is set in motion.

The condition which causes a high *tension* is an extended liquid conductor, along the whole line of which successive pairs of plates are arranged; each acted upon chemically by the exciting liquid, and urging on the current in the same direction. But the quantity in this case may not be great; for, although its *tension* is increased by the force which each plate gives to the current as it passes, the *quantity* which passes along the wire, according to Faraday, is exactly equal to that which passes through *one* of the cells in which the plates are immersed.

3. The *energy* of voltaic currents is measured either by their power of deflecting a magnetic needle, or by that of *chemical decomposition.* The deflection of the needle depends

upon *quantity;* hence a single pair of plates will deflect the needle more than a number of small ones combined; but decomposition depends upon *quantity* and *intensity* together. The decomposing power of the battery, however, does not increase in the ratio of the number of plates, but as the square root of the number, so that, when the number varies as 1 to 4, the decomposing power is as 1 to 2.

The deflecting power of a single pair of plates varies inversely as the square root of the distance between them. Thus, if a plate of zinc be placed at one, four, and nine inches from a plate of copper, the deflecting powers will be in the ratio of 3, 2, 1.

4. The velocity of common electricity through perfect conductors, is surpassed only by that of light, being, according to Wheatstone's Experiments, about 288,000 miles per second. From some experiments, it is infered that the velocity of voltaic electricity is somewhat less. Hence this agent has been employed to communicate intelligence from one place to another. *The Electro-Magnetic Telegraph,* by which this is effected, depends upon the velocity of electricity and its power to impart magnetism to soft iron.

Effects of Galvanism.

I. The effects of common and voltaic electricity have many points of resemblance.

1. If a zinc and copper plate be immersed in dilute nitric acid, and the wire attached to the zinc plate be made to touch a gold leaf electrometer, the leaves will diverge with negative *electricity*, and if the wire of the copper plate be applied, it will indicate *positive* electricity. This effect is much greater when a battery of several pairs of plates is employed. It appears to be due to the disturbed equilibrium in the zinc plate; the chemical relation of which to the acid renders the metal *positive*, at the expense of the attached wire, while the copper plate, induced by the contiguous zinc, becomes *negative*, at the expense of its wire, which becomes positive.

2. A *Leyden jar* may be charged from either wire of an unbroken circuit, provided a large quantity of electricity be developed, connected with high *tension*. This effect depends upon the number of plates and the energy of the action.

3. Voltaic, like common electricity, passes through the

air, and other non-conductors, in the form of sparks, accompanied with a report, and the development of light and heat. Hence it will inflame gunpowder, phosphorus, hydrogen and oxygen, and other inflammable substances.

4. Its *tension*, however, is so feeble, compared with common electricity, that it has, according to Mr. Children, a very small *striking distance;* i. e., the space of air through which the spark will pass is comparatively small. With a battery of 1250 pairs of four-inch plates, he found the striking distance to be $\frac{1}{50}$ of an inch. If the air be rarefied, the distance will be increased, and diminished by condensation.

5. The effect of voltaic electricity upon the animal system is similar to that of common electricity.

6. Both kinds also deflect the magnetic needle, and produce chemical decomposition.

II. One of the most surprising effects of voltaic currents *is their power of igniting the metals.*

Exp. Attach to each pole of the battery strips of metallic leaves, and bring them in contact; the metals will burn with the most vivid scintillations. (See Fig. 38.)

The color of the light varies in different metals. Gold leaf burns with a white light, tinged with blue, and yields a dark brown oxide. Silver emits an emerald-green light, of great brilliancy; copper, a bluish-white light, with red sparks; lead, a beautiful purple; and zinc, a brilliant white light, tinged with blue and red. If the communication be made with charcoal points, (that from the box-wood is the best,) the light is equal, if not superior, in intensity, to that emitted during the combustion of phosphorus in oxygen gas, and the heat is sufficient, it is said, to partially fuse the carbon, a substance which is fusible by no other means of producing heat.*

Theory. The heating power seems to be due, for the most part, to the *quantity* of electricity developed; hence, for melting wires, a *calorimotor* is preferable to a *compound battery.* The heat is supposed to arise from the difficulty with which the electric currents pass along the conductors; but

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* On examining the points after they have been subjected to the action of a powerful battery, one will present a conical appearance, like the head of a pin, the other a corresponding cavity. The carbon thus transposed has been supposed to be partially melted; and recent experiments seem to confirm this view.

as the substances are good conductors, the effect will take place only when the quantity of electricity transmitted, is out of proportion to the extent of surface over which it has to pass.

As heat and light are produced *in vacuo*, under water, or in gases which do not contain combustible matter, these phenomena cannot be attributed to *combustion*, but to the production of light and heat by the electric fluid itself. The effects of common electricity from the electric machine, and in the case of lightning, are so similar to those above described, that there can be no doubt of the *identity* of the agents concerned in their production.

III. *Chemical Effects of Galvanism.* The phenomena which accompany *chemical combinations* are similar to those produced by voltaic electricity. But the agency of voltaic currents to effect the decomposition of chemical compounds is a most important and useful discovery, which was first made by Carlisle and Nicholson.

1. The first substance decomposed by the galvanic battery was water. The water for decomposition is put into a small vessel, *a*, (Fig. 41.) The tubes *h o*, after being filled with water, are inverted in the vessel, passing through holes in the stopper; *n* and *p* are platinum wires passing through the sides of the vessel into the open ends of the tubes. When the poles of the battery are connected with the wires, the positive with *p*, and the negative with *n*, hydrogen gas is disengaged at the negative, and oxygen at the positive wire.

Fig. 41.

The two gases will rise up in the tubes in small bubbles, and displace the water. By measuring the gases, it will be found that there will be exactly two measures of hydrogen in the tube *h* to one of oxygen in the tube *o*. If the gases are collected in the same tube and exploded in the eudiometer, they will entirely disappear, and water will again be formed. By this means, the composition of water, both by analysis and synthesis, is accurately ascertained.
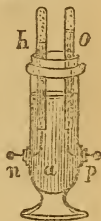
This important discovery led to similar trials upon other substances. Other compounds, such as acids, salts, and alka-

lies, were subjected to the agency of galvanism, and all were decomposed — one of their elements appearing at the positive, the other at the negative pole. In these decompositions, it was found that the same kind of body always went to the same pole. The metals, inflammable substances in general, alkalies, earths, and the oxides of the common metals, were uniformly found at the negative wire, while oxygen, chlorine, and the acids, were found at the positive pole. This led to a division of substances into *Electro-positive*, and *Electro-negative* — a distinction, however, which is not found, by later experiments, to accord with facts.

2. The *transfer* of chemical substances from one vessel to another was noticed by Sir H. Davy. This transfer may be shown by two wine-glasses, (Fig. 42.)

Put a solution of sulphate of soda into one, *n*, and distilled water into the other, *p*; then connect them with moistened amianthus or cotton thread. If, now, the negative pole of the battery is connected with *n*, and the positive with *p*, the acid will pass over into the cup *p* containing the distilled water — if the poles are reversed, the alkali will pass over into this cup. If, instead of distilled water, infusion of purple cabbage be used, the presence of the acid will be detected by the red color which it will give to the infusion, and that of the alkali by its changing the infusion to green.*

Fig. 42.

But the effect in this experiment, and in those where three vessels are used, (the middle one of which, although containing a very delicate test of the presence of an acid or of an alkali, will suffer them to pass through it without detection,) can be accounted for on the principle that a part of the salt passes over into the cup by capillary attraction; as it has

Fig. 43.

* A very simple apparatus for showing the changes of color when salts in solution are subjected to galvanic action, is shown in Fig. 43, which consists of a glass tube, bent in the form of the letter U. Fill both legs with a neutral salt colored with the infusion of purple cabbage; on immersing the poles *p* and *n*, the color may be transferred from one leg to the other as often as the poles are changed.

been proved by Faraday that decomposition never takes place unless the electric fluid actually passes through the substance.

It was in pursuing these researches that Davy made his great discovery of the decomposition of the alkalies and earths, which, until that time, had been considered simple bodies.

Theory. The theory of decomposition, proposed by Davy, was this: He conceived that the poles of the battery were centres of attraction to one element of the compound, and of repulsion to the other; hence, when the two poles were immersed in water, the oxygen of the water was attracted by the positive, and repelled by the negative pole, while the hydrogen was repelled by the positive and attracted by the negative pole. The elements, thus acted upon by four forces, were separated, and made to appear at their respective poles.

But this theory does not account for all the phenomena. If it were true, we should expect decomposition to be effected by one pole alone, as it exerts the attractive and repellent influence; but this is never the case.

Mr. Faraday has lately revised this part of the subject, and not only added much that is new, but shown that many principles, especially the above theory, are erroneous.

He contends that the poles have no attractive or repulsive tendency, but simply afford a path for the voltaic currents to enter the liquid. Instead of poles, he calls them *electrodes*,* which means the *way* or *door* for electric currents, and may be air, water, metal, or any other substance capable of conducting the currents to and from the substance to be decomposed. The point where the positive current enters the liquid, he calls the *anode*,† and that where it quits it, the *cathode*. ‡

When a compound is decomposed by galvanism, it is said to be *electrolyzed*,§ and substances capable of decomposition are called *electrolytes*; the elements of an *electrolyte* are

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* From ηλεκτρον and όδος, *a way.*
† From ἀνα, *upwards,* and όδος, the way in which the sun rises
‡ From κατα, *down rds,* the way in which the sun sets.
§ From ηλεκτρον and   ο *unloose* or *set free.*

called *ions*.* *Anions* are the *ions* which appear at the *anode*
cations, those that appear at the *cathode.* The *anions* are
the electro-negative substances, such as oxygen, chlorine,
acids, etc.; the *cations*, the electro-positive, such as hydro-
gen, alkalies, metals, etc.

The following are the principal results of Faraday's inves-
t'gations : —

1. All compounds, contrary to what has been hitherto
supposed, are not electrolytes; that is, are not *directly* de-
composable by the voltaic currents. But many bodies may
be decomposed by secondary action. Thus water is directly
decomposed by an electric current; but nitric acid is decom-
posed by secondary action — the decomposition of the water
contained in it, aids the decomposition of the acid. Very
numerous secondary actions are produced in this way, because
the disunited elements, separated by direct action, are pre-
sented in their nascent form, which is peculiarly favorable to
chemical action.

2. Most of the salts or secondary compounds are resolva-
ble into acid and oxide; but in the binary compounds, such
as acids and oxides, the ratio of combination has an influence
which has been hitherto overlooked. No two elements ap-
pear capable of forming more than one *electrolyte.* The
proto-chloride of tin is readily decomposed, but the by-chlo-
ride is not. Hence substances which consist of *a single
equivalent* of one element, and *two or more* of another, are
not electrolytes, that is, are not decomposed *directly* by
electricity.

3. Most of the simple substances are *ions*, that is, capable
of forming compounds decomposable by galvanism.

4. A single *ion*, by itself, has no tendency to pass to either
of the *electrodes*, that is, it is indifferent to the voltaic cur-
rents.

5. There is no such thing as a transfer of the *ions*, in the
sense supposed by Davy. In order that the elements of water
should appear at the two electrodes, there must be a row of
particles between them.

6. The air, or the surface of water, may constitute an elec-
trode, as well as metals.

7. Electro-chemical decomposition cannot occur unless a
current of electricity actually passes through the compound,

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* From ιον, *going*, neuter participle of the verb *to go*.

that is, the compound must be a conductor of electricity On this principle many substances, by change of state, resist decomposition. Water is easily decomposed, but ice is not; many solid substances, also, are not *electrolytes*, because they are not conductors. Chemical compounds differ in the *electrical force* required for their decomposition; some require but a feeble current, others a powerful one.

8. The *conduction* of the electric currents in the cells of a battery depends upon *decomposition.* If the zinc or the copper be attacked chemically by a substance which is simple, or a non-conductor, no currents can be set in motion.

9. *Electro-chemical decomposition* is perfectly *definite:* that is, in the voltaic circle 32.3 parts of zinc are dissolved during the evolution of one part of hydrogen. This is in the ratio of their chemical equivalents. The same is true of all electrolytes. Hence Mr. Faraday has given to the quantities of electricity, requisite to effect the decomposition of various substances, the name of *electro-chemical equivalents.* This is a new and important discovery, and illustrates the close connection between chemical affinity and electricity. Hence, in order to estimate the *quantity* of electricity circulating in a voltaic apparatus, it is only necessary to collect the gas evolved from the acidulated water during any given time.

Theory of Electro-Chemical Decomposition. We have already noticed the theory of Davy, which supposes that all substances are in one of two states of electricity, and that the poles have an attractive and repulsive force; but Mr. Faraday has shown that this theory cannot be true. All substances are indifferent when by themselves, but assume one of the two states when brought in contact. Only one substance is always negative — *oxygen ;* and but one always positive — *potassium :* between these extremes, they may be made to assume either positive or negative states. To account for the decomposition of water, we must conceive of a line of particles between the two electrodes, along which the current passes. When a particle of oxygen is evolved at the positive electrode, its hydrogen is not transferred at once to the opposite electrode, but unites with the oxygen of the contiguous particle of water, on the side towards which the positive current is moving; then it passes to the next, and so on, until

it arrives at the pole. A similar row of particles of oxygen start from the negative electrode at the same moment, and combine successively with the particles of hydrogen as they pass them on their way to the positive pole or electrode.* It is supposed that other compounds are decomposed by a similar process.

Magnetic Effects of Electricity, or Electro-Magnetism.— History. It had been noticed for a long time that, when a ship, for example, was struck with lightning, the magnetic needle often had its poles destroyed or reversed, and that the iron often became magnetic. This led to the supposition, that electricity might be employed to communicate the magnetic properties to iron or steel; but no results of importance were obtained until the winter of 1819, when Prof. Oersted, of Copenhagen, made his famous discovery, which forms the basis of a new and very important branch of science.

I. *Influence of Voltaic Currents upon the Magnetic Needle.* The discovery made by Oersted was, that the metallic wire, or any part of a closed voltaic circle, causes a magnetic needle, when brought near it, to deviate from its natural position, and assume positions depending upon the relative position of the needle and the wire.

Thus, suppose a magnetic needle freely suspended with its poles pointing north and south. (See fig. 41.)

1. If, now, a positive current pass from north to south in the same plane with the needle, but a little above it, the north pole will turn to the east, and the south pole to the west.

2. If the current pass under the needle, the north pole moves west, and the south east.

3. If the current pass on the west side of the needle, and in the same horizontal plane, the magnet will have a tendency to move in a vertical direction, the north pole being elevated, and the south depressed.

4. If the current pass on the east side, the north pole is depressed, and the south elevated.

5. If the current flow from south to north, the needle will move in opposite directions.

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* The quantity of electricity sufficient to decompose a single grain of water would be equal to a powerful flash of lightning.

The deflection is rarely 45°, in consequence of the mag. netism of the earth; but if that force is counteracted, as it may be, by suspending two magnets near each other, of equal power, with their poles reversed, the declination will be 90°; hence *the tendency of a magnetic needle is to stand at right angles to an electric current.*

6. If the wire be placed in a plane, perpendicular to the one in which the magnet moves, and the positive current ascends or descends to the centre of the needle, no action will take place; but if it be moved towards the north or south poles, they will be attracted or repelled. *Hence the plane in which a needle moves is always perpendicular to that in which the voltaic currents circulate.*

7. The phenomena of *Electro-Dynamic action* result wholly from electricity in motion, and depend upon quantity alone; hence a simple circle of large plates is best fitted for exhibiting it.*

From the above facts it will be seen, that the magnetic needle may be employed, not only to ascertain the existence and direction of voltaic currents, but also to measure their force. The instruments used for these purposes are called

Galvanometers or *Multipliers.* As it is proved by experiment that every part of a wire in a closed circuit exerts an equal force upon the poles of a needle, if we can increase the number of points, the combined force will be greatly increased. This can be done by coiling the wire into the form of a circle or rectangle; each coil will exert its own force, independent of its neighbor, and the united force will depend upon the number of coils. Thus (Fig. 44) NP are the two ends of a copper wire bent in the form of a rectangle, in the centre of which, and in a plane perpendicular to the plane of the wire, is placed a magnetic needle. A graduated circular plate meas-

Fig. 44.
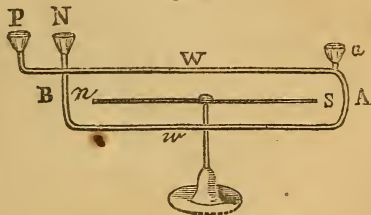
* The simple battery, Fig. 36, p. 81, is best fitted for experiments on this subject. The exciting liquid should be a solution of sulphate of copper.

ures the degree of declination, which indicates the quantity
of electricity circulating along the wires. It will be seen,
that if the positive current pass above the needle from north
to south, that is, from P to *a*, and then pass around the south
pole from A to B, there will be double the effect produced.
By increasing the number of coils, the deflection of the
needle will be much greater. This constitutes the *Electro-
Magnetic Multiplier* of Schweigger.

If the *directive* power of the needle be destroyed, or if the
currents are sufficiently powerful, the needle will stand at
right angles to the direction of the currents. Then, if, at the
moment it has attained this point, the currents be sent in an
opposite direction, it will perform a revolution. Thus, by
changing the direction of the currents, a needle may be made
to revolve rapidly.

If the magnet is fixed, and the rectangle suspended free to
move, it will exhibit the same phenomena while the voltaic
currents are passing around it.

Fig. 45.
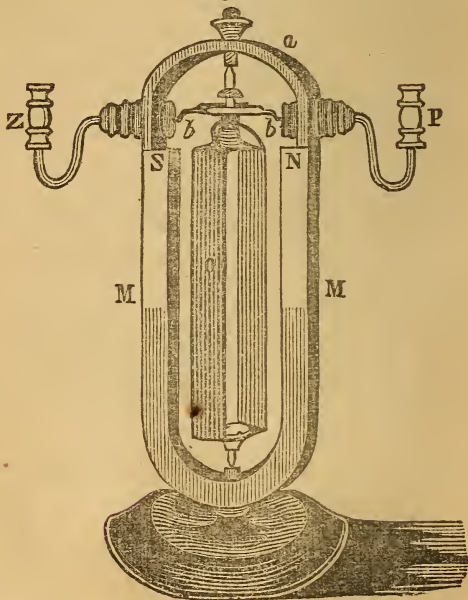
The *Revolving Rectangle* is constructed on this principle. MM (Fig. 45) is a permanent horse-shoe magnet; C, a rectangular coil of copper wire, connected at each end to an axis, by which means it may be made to revolve; ZP are two cups, to form a connection with the poles of a battery; the wires *bb* are connected with the cups, and press on opposite sides of the cylindrical metallic *pole-changer*, which revolves between them. The pole-changer consists of two pieces of silver, with a small space between them; one of these pieces is connected with one end of the wire of the rectangle, and the other piece with the other end; *a* is an arch of brass to support the rectangle and the wires. If the two cups be connected with the battery, P with the positive, and Z with the negative pole, the positive current will pass along the wire *b* next to N, and from the wire to one side of the pole-changer, and thence several times around the rectangle to the wire *b* next to S.

When the positive current is passing from P around this rectangle, one side is impelled towards one pole of the magnet, and the other towards the other pole. When the sides arrive in the plane of the poles, the force still continues to act, and they are forced by, and complete half a revolution, standing again at right angles to the poles of the magnet, the point at which they commenced their revolution: at this point the pole-changer sends the currents in opposite directions, and the revolution is continued. Reverse the current, by changing the battery wires, and the rectangle will revolve in an opposite direction.

II. *The influence of voltaic currents on soft iron and steel* was noticed by Davy and Arago about the same time. If an iron or steel needle be suspended in the galvanometer instead of the common needle, at right angles to the conducting wires, permanent magnetism will be communicated to the steel, and the iron will become powerfully magnetic, as long as the currents circulate, but will lose this property when the circuit is broken. Davy succeeded in producing a similar effect by a discharge from a common electric battery.

1. This effect can be exhibited in the most satisfactory manner by coiling an insulated copper wire in the form of a helix, *i'*, (Fig. 46,) and connecting the two ends of the wire *bb* with the cups CZ, into which the poles of a battery may

5

be inserted. Bars of soft iron or steel, placed in the coil, will become magnetized the instant the voltaic currents circulate around the coil. If the positive current flows from Z around the helix, *n* will be the north pole, and *s* the south pole. If it flow from C, the poles will be reversed.

Fig. 46.

2. If a bar of soft iron (Fig. 47) be wound with copper wire from *c* to *a* in one direction, and from *a* to *d* in an opposite direction, and currents of electricity passed around the bar, by connecting the wires *b e* with a voltaic battery, the bar will have three poles; *c* and *d* will be similar poles, and *a* an opposite pole common to the other two, as may be shown by bringing a magnetic needle near each. By changing the direction of the battery currents, the poles are reversed; *hence the kind of pole depends upon the direction of the voltaic currents.*

Fig. 47.

3. Although soft iron does not retain its magnetism, yet its magnetic properties, while the voltaic currents are passing around it, are truly surprising.

Fig. 48.

If a soft iron cylinder, two inches in diameter, and bent in the form of a horse-shoe magnet D, (Fig. 48,) be wound with copper wire, and the ends BC connected with the battery, it will be converted into a powerful magnet. On applying the armature A, it will sustain several hundred pounds. Magnets of this description may be made to sustain from 200 to 2000 lbs. It will be seen that the principle is the same as in the *helix;* and, as in the mul-

tiplier, by increasing the number of coils, the magnet becomes more powerful, but the force does not increase directly as the number of coils; for each additional coil is farther from the axis of the iron bar, and the power it exerts is inversely as the square of the distance from the axis.
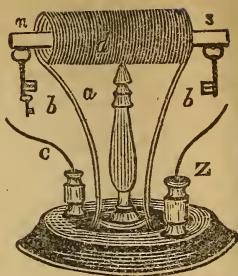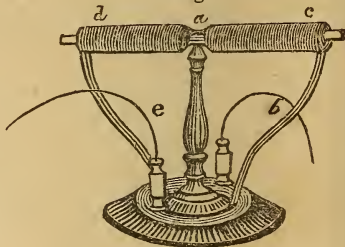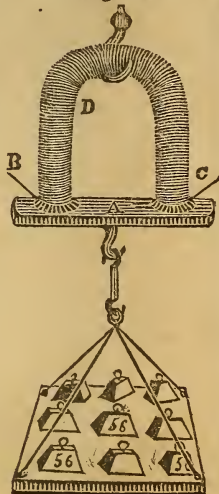
4. *The Magic Circle*, with two iron armatures, acts also on the same principle.

Fig. 49.

r (Fig. 49) is a coil of insulated copper wire; ab the two ends which may be connected with the battery. When the wires $b\ a$ are connected with the battery, and the two armatures are brought into contact, one of them passing through the ring, they adhere to each other very strongly, and, although they weigh less than $\frac{3}{4}$ lb., they will sustain a weight of 56 lbs. without separation. The voltaic currents not only communicate magnetism to the iron and steel placed in the ring, but the helix itself becomes magnetic while transmitting the currents, as is proved by its attracting iron filings. These and other facts, developed by voltaic currents, seem to prove the *identity* of the magnetic and electric fluids.

5. *Vibrating Magic Circle.* . MM (Fig. 50) is an *electro-magnet*, which may be used instead of a permanent magnet; c, a coil of coarse wire suspended from the post S; one end of the wire a dips into the cup e, which is connected with the post S, and which also communicates with p; the other end of the wire d is connected with the other cup, which is insulated from the post S, and into which also one of the poles of the battery may be immersed; connect the other pole of the battery with p, and a current of electricity will pass along the post S to the cup e; as the wire a dips into it, the . current

Fig. 50.
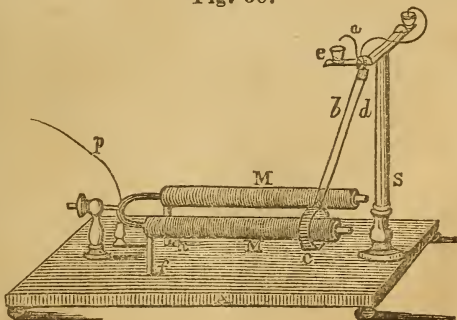
will pass down the wire *b* around the coil *c*, and then up the
wire *d* to the other cup; as the currents circulate, the coil
will be attracted to the pole of the magnet M; this will lift *a*,
and break the circuit, and the coil will fall back beside the
post S; *a* will again be immersed in *e*, and the coil be again
attracted upon M. Thus vibrations are produced as long as
the currents of electricity circulate.

6. *Page's Revolving Magnet and Bell Engine.*—By using
an electro-magnet in connection with a permanent steel mag-
net, or another electro-magnet, and reversing the currents by
a pole changer, very rapid revolutions may be produced.
The following is Page's revolving magnet, with a bell at-
tached to mark the rapidity of the revolutions.

Thus, N S (Fig. 51.)* repre-
sents the north and south poles of a
permanent horse-shoe magnet. A
is a bundle of coarse iron wire,
wound with copper wire, constitu-
ting an electro-magnet, which is
fitted to an axle S. By means of a
pole changer, connected with the
axle below the electro-magnet, the
battery current may be made to pass
in opposite directions as the magnet
revolves upon its axle. By this
means the polarity of the electro-
magnet can be constantly changed.
Suppose it stand at right angles to
the permanent magnet, and is ren-
dered magnetic by a current of
electricity, its south pole will be at-
tracted to the north pole of the steel
magnet, and its north pole to the
south pole of the steel magnet. As
it turns $\frac{1}{4}$ of a revolution, the pole
changer sends the current in the op-

Fig. 51.

posite direction, and changes its poles; mutual repulsion now
takes place, because similar poles are near each other, and it
moves another quarter of a revolution by repulsion, and then
another quarter by attraction of opposite polarities. The mo-
ment it has completed a half revolution, the poles are changed,
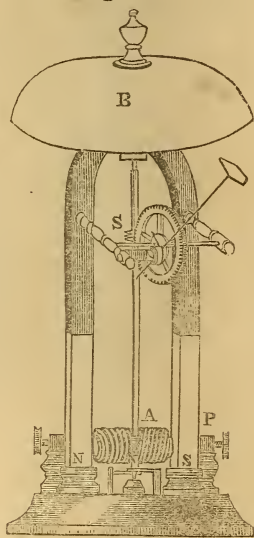
* Davis's Manual of Magnetism, p. 114, fig. 72.

and it continues to revolve.   To the axle is attached an endless screw, which acts upon a toothed wheel with a projecting pin for the purpose of raising the hammer of the bell at each revolution.   If the wheel has 100 teeth, the magnet must revolve 100 times to produce one revolution of the wheel, which is indicated by a stroke of the hammer against the bell.   The velocity of the rotating magnet may be determined by noting the number of strokes in a minute, or in any given time.   It has often made 100 revolutions in a second, or 6000 in a minute ; and for each revolution of the magnet, its poles are changed twice or 12000 times a minute.   For this effect the current must pass through some 20 feet of wire, and convert the inclosed bundle of iron wire into a magnet, twice at each revolution.   Some idea may thus be formed of the rapidity with which this agent moves through conducting substances.   On the above principles, and others yet to be developed, a variety of machines have been constructed. Many of them are beautifully figured and described in Davis's Manual of Magnetism.

III.   *Volta-Electric Induction.*   The fact that an electrically-excited body induced electricity in other bodies brought near it, (page 76,) led Faraday to inquire whether electricity in motion would not have the same effect.   This fact he soon established.

If a copper wire be wound in the form of a helix, and the ends connected with a battery, and then another wire be wound around this, but insulated from it, and the ends connected with a galvanometer, currents of electricity will be induced in the insulated wire, as often as the battery current is broken.   All the effects of galvanism may be produced by the insulated wire.

The phenomena of *Volta-Electric Induction* may be exhibited in the most satisfactory manner by the

Separable Helices, (Fig. 52,) an apparatus very well fitted for illustration, for producing sparks, and imparting shocks of almost any degree of intensity.

b (Fig. 52) is a hollow coil of coarse wire fixed upon a stand, Z ; one end of the wire is connected with the cup, and

Fig. 52.
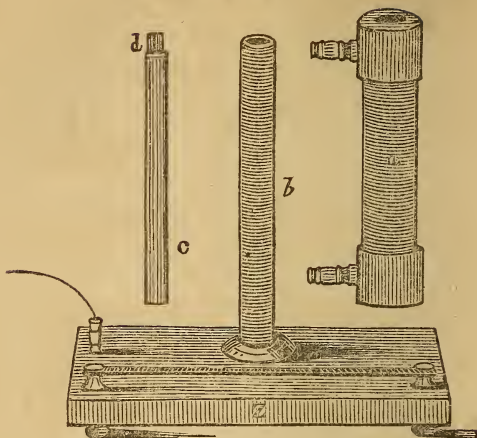
the other with the steal *break-piece*,* which is fixed to the stand, by the side of the coil ; *a* is a coil of fine wire, which may be placed over the coil *b* ; *d* is a bundle of wires, which may be slipped into the copper case *c*, and placed in the centre of the coil *b*.

Fig. 53 represents this apparatus entire. The following are the principal facts which it is fitted to exhibit :—

Exp. 1. Connect one pole of the battery with the cup on the left of *c*, (Fig. 52,) and move the other pole along the break-piece; vivid sparks will be produced at each interruption.

Exp. 2. Remove from the wires *d* the copper case *c*, and insert them gradually in the coil *b* while the currents are circulating, and the sparks on the break-piece will increase in brilliancy until the wires reach the bottom, when the greatest effect will be produced.

Exp. 3. Place the coil *a* upon *b*, and let the currents circulate as before. If the handles *e f*, (Fig. 53,) which communicate with the extremities of the wire forming the coil *a*, be held in the hands, powerful shocks will be felt as the wire conveying the battery current passes across the break-piece. As the outer is insulated from the inner coil, the shocks do not proceed from the battery current, but from currents *induced* in the wire of the outer helix. Currents thus induced produce all the phenomena of the battery currents.

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* A *break* may consist of air, or any non-conductor, so connected with a conductor, that, when the wire conveying the voltaic current passes from the conductor to the non-conductor, the circuit may be broken ; and it is only at the moment of interrupting the battery current in the inner, that electricity is induced in the outer coil.

Fig. 53.
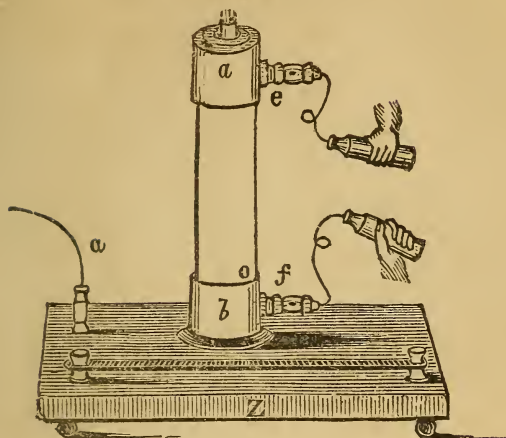
Exp. 4. A single wire* will increase the power of the shocks, and by increasing the number of wires, the sparks will increase in brilliancy, and the shocks will become more and more powerful.

Exp. 5. If the copper case be placed upon the wires, the effect will be the same as when no wires are used.

Fig. 54.
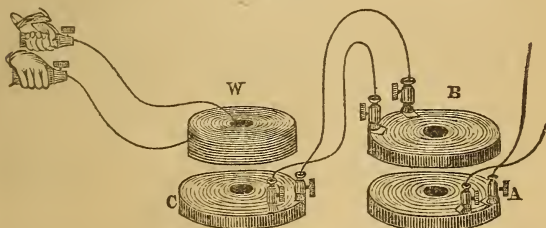
The battery current which passes around the inner coil of wire is called the primary, and the induced current the *secondary* current. It is not necessary to this effect that one of the coils should surround the other, but may be placed

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* Fine wires answer a better purpose than a solid bar ; if, however, the bar be slit lengthwise down to the axis, the effect will be nearly equal to the wires, and if the copper case be sawed open lengthwise, it will not destroy the effect of the wires.

above it in the form of a flat spinal. Thus, let A (Fig. 54) (Davis's Manual, p. 149, Fig. 97) be a coil of copper ribbon, having the two ends connected with a battery. Let B be a second coil placed just above it, with its ends connected with the ends of a third coil C. Over this place a fourth coil W, with handles attached by wires to each extremity as above.

Exp. 1. By passing the battery current through A, secondary currents will be induced in B, one, when the circuit is completed, passing in a direction opposite to the battery current, called the *initial,* and one, when the battery current is broken, circulating in the same direction, and called the *terminal* current.

Exp. 2. When C is connected with B, as in Fig. 54, the secondary current passes also through C, and will produce a *tertiary* current in W, and if W be a coil of fine wire, strong shocks are felt, by clasping the handles. A ribbon will give a *quantity* current, but its *intensity* will be slight compared with the fine wire coil.

Tertiary currents are also induced both when the battery circuit is closed and when it is broken, and the *initial* and *terminal* tertiaries flow in directions opposite to the corresponding secondaries. Tertiary currents are capable of producing currents of a fourth order, and these latter currents of a fifth order, and so on, as high at least as the seventh order.

The directions of these currents, produced by the initial and terminal battery currents, are represented by the sign +, when they flow in the same direction, and —, when in an opposite direction.

	At the beginning.	At the ending.
Thus, Primary current,	+	+
Secondary current,	—	+
Tertiary current,	+	—
Quaternary current,	—	+

It will be seen that these induced currents must react upon each other, and diminish their effect, by inducing currents in an opposite direction. In this way also, induced currents act against the battery current, and this fact presents a serious difficulty in using this agent for moving machinery.

There is a striking analogy between frictional and voltaic

electricity, in the fact that both kinds induce electricity in bodies which are in their vicinity ; but there is also a marked difference in the circumstance that the presence of a body electrified by statical electricity, throws surrounding bodies into an excited state which is constant, while the currents induced by voltaic electricity are produced only at the moment that the battery currents commence and cease to flow. If the battery current is constant, no secondary currents will be induced after the first wave is excited. Hence the rapid succession of shocks from the outer coil, when the battery current is rapidly broken and closed.

IV. *Magneto-Electric Induction.* The power of the magnet to induce electricity greatly exceeds that of voltaic currents.

Fig. 55.
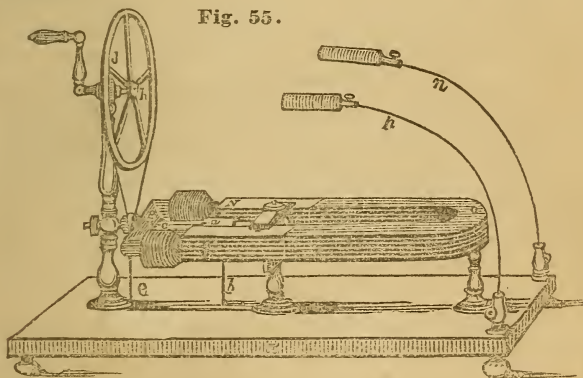
The apparatus best fitted to exhibit this effect is the *Magneto-Electric Machine,* (Fig. 55,) which consists of a permanent horse-shoe magnet, SN, supported by pillars upon the stand Z, and an armature, g, wound with copper wire, and made to revolve upon an axis, c, near the poles of the magnet, by means of the wheel h; one end of the wire is soldered to the axis, by which means it is connected with a break-piece, against which the wire e presses; the other end of the wire

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* Fine wires answer a better purpose than a solid bar; if, however the bar be slit lengthwise down to the axis, the effect will be nearly equal to the wires, and if the copper case be sawed open lengthwise, it will not destroy the effect of the wires.

5*

is soldered to a silver ferule, *a*, insulated from the axis, against which the wire *b* presses; the wires *e b* communicate with the cup into which the wire *p* is inserted; the wire *n* is connected with the axis by means of the post on the right of *b*; *p* and *n* therefore represent the two ends of the wire which surrounds the armature. When the armature is set in motion by the multiplying-wheel *h*, its magnetic state is continually changing. When the two extremities of the armature are midway between the poles of the magnet, the armature is neutral. As they advance towards the poles, they acquire a gradually-increasing polarity, until they are opposite the poles, and gradually diminish, as they pass the poles, until they are midway again between the poles, when the armature becomes neutral, as before. By this revolution, a current of electricity will be induced in the wire which surrounds the armature, and will pass from the break-piece to the ferule, by means of the wire *e b*, which connects them; excepting, when the end of the wire *e* is passing across the break-piece, then there will be induced in the wire which surrounds the armature a secondary current, which passes by sparks at each point of interruption, or at the wires *p n*, if they are brought nearly into contact. By pressing the hands, previously moistened, upon the handles connected with *p n*, powerful shocks will be felt at each interruption. Deflagrations may also be produced, and decompositions effected, and generally the electricity thus induced produces effects precisely similar to those from the voltaic battery. The phenomena of electricity, thus produced, are sometimes called *Magneto-Elec tricity*.*

V. *Theory of Electro-Magnetism and Magneto-Electricity.* In order to understand the theory of M. Ampere, by which the phenomena of electro-magnetism and magneto-electricity may be best explained, it is only necessary to keep in view the following principle, which lies at the basis of the theory·

When two positive or two negative currents are passing in the same direction, and parallel, they attract, and when passing in opposite directions, they repel each other.

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* The best apparatus for experiments upon electro-magnetism and magneto-electricity, is manufactured by Daniel Davis, Jr. No. 11, Cornhill, Boston

If, now, we suppose that all magnetic bodies, and the earth itself among the number, derive their magnetic properties from currents of electricity circulating, in reference to their axis, in one uniform direction of revolution, we can account for all the phenomena of *Magnetism*, *Electro-Magnetism*, and *Magneto-Electricity*.

Fig. 56.

To make this view clear. Suppose that around the cylinder of steel, (Fig. 56,) at right angles to the axis, currents of positive electricity are constantly circulating in a direction opposite to that in which the sun moves. The cylinder will be a magnet, *n* the north pole, and S the south pole, and, if it be poised upon a pivot, it will differ in nothing but in form from a magnetic needle.

Application of the Theory. 1. The reason that the needle turns to the east when the positive current passes above it from north to south is, that the currents in the magnet, and those in the wire, move in different directions. The needle is repelled, and turns so that the currents may coincide.

2. When the positive current passes under the needle, it moves to the west, because then also the two positive currents coincide.

3. When it passes on either side in the same horizontal plane, it tends to a vertical motion, for the same reason as above; but if the positive current passes from south to north, the phenomena are all reversed.

4. When it passes around the poles in a vertical plane, in the same direction in which the sun appears to move, the needle will perform one half a revolution, because the currents move in opposite directions, and the needle revolves so that the currents in it may coincide with those in the conducting wire.

5. Bars of steel and soft iron become magnetic when placed in the helix around which currents of electricity circulate, because similar currents are *induced* in them.

6. If we suppose positive currents of electricity to be passing around the earth in the same direction in which the sun appears to move, they would convert it into a magnet, the north pole of the earth corresponding to the south pole of the magnetic needle; hence, if soft iron or steel bars are placed in a north and south direction, they will become magnets by *induction*, the positive currents passing from west to east, because then they would coincide with the same currents in the earth which pass from east to west; hence the reason that a magnetic needle stands north and south, is, that the currents of electricity circulating around the earth, and those circulating in the needle, will coincide only when the needle takes that direction.

VI. *Thermo-Electricity.* Thermo-electric phenomena result from currents of electricity excited in metals by heat. The existence of these currents was first demonstrated in 1821 by Seebeck.

If a magnet be suspended in a rectangle formed of a bar of antimony or bismuth, having its extremities connected with copper wires, and heat applied to one end of the bar, the needle will be deflected in one direction, and in an opposite direction when heat is applied to the other end Similar effects are produced when either end is cooled below the natural temperature. Other metals, treated in the same manner, exhibit similar phenomena, but bismuth and antimony are the best. Prof. Cumming has shown that a rotary motion may be produced by placing platinum and silver wires, soldered together in a circular form, upon a magnet, and applying heat.

VII. *Nature of Electricity* Some suppose that there is no transfer of *any thing* in what are called electric currents, but a process of *induction* passing progressively along among the molecules of a conductor. Others ascribe them to waves of vibrating matter, just as the phenomena of light and caloric are explained, by the undulatory theory.

VIII. *Uses of Electricity.* 1. Both voltaic and common electricity have been employed in medicine; in some cases, with highly beneficial effects. It acts powerfully upon the

nervous system, and has been the means of restoring sensation to parts of the body which had become paralytic; so powerfully does it act upon the vital energies, that persons who have been deprived of life, either by some accident, or by design, have been resuscitated by its agency. Its influence is constant and universal in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms.

2. Attempts have been made to employ voltaic electricity as a motive power in the arts, to supersede the use of steam; but all attempts hitherto have been unsuccessful. Sufficient power has been generated to turn a small lathe; and it is to be hoped that an apparatus will yet be constructed to render available the great force which this agent is capable of exerting. This force depends upon the property of the voltaic currents to communicate magnetism to soft iron, thus producing a powerful attraction, and the property of the iron to change its poles, and consequently its attracting and repelling power as currents circulate in different directions. (See Fig. 42.)

3. *Electro-Magnetic Telegraph.* A most beautiful and highly useful application of voltaic electricity has lately been made, for the purpose of communicating intelligence from one place to another. The instrument is called the *Electro-Magnetic Telegraph.* The one invented by Prof. S. F. B. Morse appears to have been the most successful. It consists of an *electro-magnet, m,* (Fig. 57.) an armature connected with a lever balanced upon d, and having near the

Fig. 57.
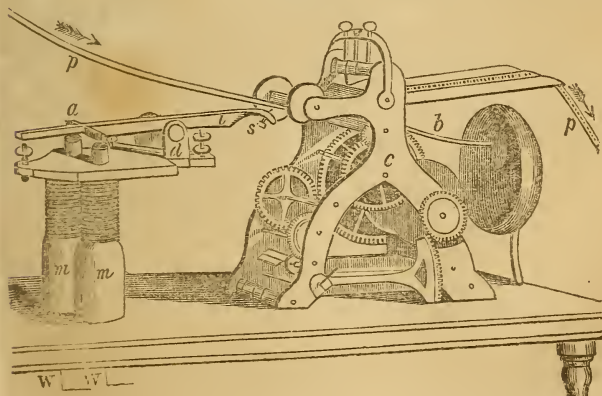
end of its longer arm, a steel point or *pen*, which may be
made to press against the roller. The paper passes around
this roller, and is moved along by the clock-work *c.* When
the circuit is closed, the electro-magnet is magnetized and
attracts the armature upon its poles. This brings the pen in
contact with the paper *p p*, and produces a dot or line according
to the time the current circulates. Thus, suppose the bat-
tery at Washington and the telegraph in New York, with
wires *w w* extending from the magnet to the battery. The op-
erator in Washington, by closing the circuit, magnetizes the
electro-magnet in New York, and brings the pen against the
paper, and by breaking and closing the circuit, he can form
a series of characters consisting of dots and dashes, which
are the symbols of letters or words; thus information is com-
municated with the rapidity of lightning. It is found that
one wire is sufficient for the effect, if opposite poles at the two
extremities are connected with a plate buried in the ground.
It is found also, that several telegraphs, on the same wire,
may be worked along the line, or at the two extremities of
it. A bell *b* is usually attached, which is to notify the opera-
tor at the station that intelligence is expected; at the same
time also the clock-work is set in motion.

The following is Morse's Telegraphic alphabet, with the
letters which the characters represent.

Alphabet.				Numerals.	
A	- —	O	— -	1	- — — -
B	— - - -	P	- - - - -	2	- - — - -
C	- - -	Q	- - — -	3	- - - — -
D	— - -	R	- - -	4	- - - - —
E	-	S	- - -	5	— — —
F	- — -	T	—	6	- - - - - -
G	— — -	U	- - —	7	— — - -
H	- - - -	V	- - - —	8	— - - - -
I	- -	W	- — —	9	— - - - —
J	— - - — -	X	- — - -	0	— —
K	— - —	Y	- - - -		
L	—	Z	- - - -		
M	— —	&	- - - -		
N	— -				

E	l	e	c	t	r	o	M	a
g	n	e	t	i	c	T	e	l
e	g	r	a	p	h	i
n	v	e	n	t	e	d	b
y	P	r	o	f	e	s	s
o	r	M	o	r	s	e	i	n
1	8	3	2

House's Lightning Printing Press. Mr. House has invent-
ed a very ingenious Telegraph, which he has designated
by the above name, in which type are used to print the com-
mon letters on strips of paper. It is a very beautiful in-
vention.

In the practical operation of the Electro-Telegraph, there
are many influences which tend to obstruct it in its action—

1. The wires are liable to be severed either by design or
accident, and some time must elapse before they can be
mended.

2. The influence of thunder storms upon the wires, by in-
duction will cause a flow of electricity, and put the machine
into operation at a distant station.

3. Lightning sometimes strikes the wires and either melts
them off or travels to the different stations, affecting the ope-
rators with very powerful shocks.

4. A difference of temperature at the two extremities of a
long wire, will often produce currents of electricity in the
wires, which obstruct the regular communications.

In these and some other ways, communications are liable
to be interrupted ; but notwithstanding these obstacles, it has
proved eminently successful. Most of the principal cities in
the United States are already connected by telegraphic lines,
and the time cannot be far distant when not only every por-
tion of this country, but the extremes of every continent of
the earth, will be closely united by means of this truly won-
derful and useful invention.

4. *Electrography.* A still more recent application of voltaic electricity has been made to the "production of perfect metallic casts or copies of medals, copperplates, and other works of art." The discovery appears to have been made about the same time, by Prof. Jacobi, of St. Petersburg, and Mr. Spencer, of Liverpool. The instrument by which this effect is produced is the

Electrotype; and the effect depends upon the decomposition of some metallic salt, by which the metal is precipitated upon the object to be copied, either forming a mould for the cast, or raising lines which may be used for making impressions on paper or other materials.*

Fig. 58 represents one form of the electrotype, and the mode of taking impressions. A is a glass vessel, in which a division is made by casting across it plaster of Paris, (earthen ware, a bladder, or any porous membrane, as thick pasteboard, will answer the same purpose.) Into one of the partitions is put a saturated solution of sulphate of copper, and into the other acidulated water. The object

Fig. 58.
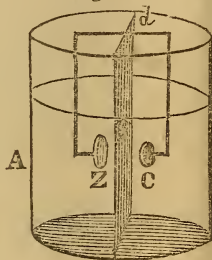
C to be copied is soldered to one end of a wire, *d*, and a piece of zinc, Z, to the other end; the object is then immersed in the cupreous solution, and the zinc into the acidulated water. The deposit of metallic copper then commences upon the object *c*, copying, with the most scrupulous exactness, every line, and even the shades of polish. In about two or three days, a complete mould may be obtained. The copper mould is separated from the matrix by gentle heat.

Theory. The metallic salt and the water are both decomposed. The sulphate of copper is resolved into sulphuric acid and oxide of copper the water into oxygen and hydrogen. The acid and oxygen go to the zinc, and the hydrogen and the oxide of copper to the copper pole, the hydrogen unites with the oxygen of the oxide of copper, and the metallic copper is deposited upon the metal or object to be copied.

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* For a description of this process, see Davis's Manual of Magnetism. p. 199, Seq.

PART II.

CHEMICAL AFFINITY.

In all those phenomena, which appropriately come under the observation of the chemist, *chemical affinity* is the great cause to which they are referred. Other agents, as light, heat, electricity, cohesion, etc., modify its action, and some knowledge of them is therefore an essential preparation for the study of this, — the great subject of chemistry. The details, to which we shall attend in the examination of particular substances, are, almost exclusively, but the effects of this principle. The student, therefore, should be familiar with the circumstances which modify its action, its varieties or different modes of operation, its effects, and especially the laws in accordance with which these effects are produced.

Chemical Affinity is an attraction, which acts only *at insensible distances, between particles of different kinds, and forms a new substance.** Cohesion is distinguished from it, by acting only between particles of the *same kind*, as well as by being governed by different laws.

Varieties of Chemical Affinity.

Although this power is the same in all cases, it will facilitate the progress of the student to distinguish some of the

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* A late writer (Griffin, Chemical Recreations) maintains that there is no such thing as chemical affinity, because we know merely that bodies combine. We might as well deny that any force or power exists because we see only its effects. From the fact that bodies do combine, we infer that some power causes them to combine, although indeed, we know nothing of it, except in its effects.

different cases in which it operates. Between many substances it does not exist at all, as is seen in mixing oil and water. The most simple case is the direct union of two substances, as when oxygen gas and iron unite, and form iron rust. This is called *Simple Affinity*. The combination of alcohol with camphor is another example.

Exp. But if water be added to this solution of camphor, the alcohol will combine with the water, and desert the camphor, which again appears free, or is technically said to be *precipitated*. As the alcohol appears to choose the water in preference to camphor, such cases are called examples of *single elective affinity.*[*]

The following are examples of the same kind : —

Exp. Into a solution of sulphate of copper (blue vitriol) immerse a clean iron wire ; the sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol) will elect the iron, and the copper will be precipitated, forming a metallic coating upon the wire.

Exp. Into a solution of protonitrate of mercury put a sheet of copper, or cents, well cleaned with dilute sulphuric acid ; the nitric acid will elect the copper, and the metallic mercury will be precipitated, and form a covering over the cents, which will give them the appearance of silver.

But, in other cases, two compounds mutually decompose each other, and form two new compounds.

Exp. Thus, if carbonate of ammonia and hydrochlorate of lime be mingled, each will be decomposed. The former consisting of carbonic acid and ammonia, and the latter of hydrochloric acid and lime, the carbonic acid will unite with the lime, and the hydrochloric acid with the ammonia, forming carbonate of lime, and hydrochlorate of ammonia. This change may be very easily understood from the annexed formula, in which the symbols are used.[†]

$$\ddot{C} \quad + \quad Am$$

$\ddot{C}$ abandons Am. and goes to $\dot{C}a$; at the same time HCl abandons $\dot{C}a$, and goes to Am.; and the results are $\ddot{C} + \dot{C}a$. and HCl + Am.

$$HCl \quad + \quad \dot{C}a.$$

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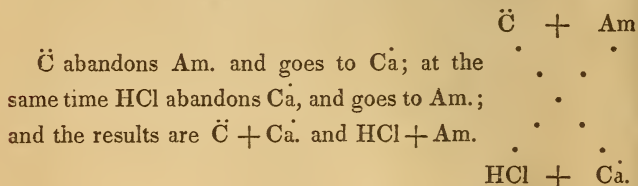
[*] *Elective affinity* is the basis of chemical science ; for if each substance attracted every other with the same force, when combination had once been effected, the decomposition of many, if not of most substances, would be impossible ; hence there would be but few changes in matter which would come under the investigation of the chemist.

[†] $\ddot{C}$ = Carbonic acid, and Am. = Ammonia ; HCl = Hydrochloric acid, and $\dot{C}a.$ = Lime.

Exp. To a solution of alum (sulphate of alumina and potassa) add a solution of acetate of lead. Sulphate of lead and acetate of alumina are formed by a double decomposition. The sulphate of lead will be precipitated, and the acetate of alumina will remain in solution.

Exp. Nitrate of ammonia and sulphate of soda will mutually decompose each other. In all cases of double decomposition, the alkali in one of the compounds will just neutralize the acid in the other, so that, if any delicate test of an acid or an alkali (as vegetable infusion) be placed in the mixture, no effect will be produced upon it; hence, as the quantities of acid and of alkali, in all neutral salts, are just sufficient to saturate each other when double decomposition takes place, these quantities are called *equivalents.*

Such cases are examples of *double elective affinity.** Cases are more numerous, however, in which the changes are much more complicated; but they may all be referred to the three modes stated above.

Circumstances which modify the Operation of Chemical Affinity.

That one substance has a stronger affinity for some than for others, cannot be doubted. But combination and decomposition do not always depend upon the relative force of affinity alone. Several circumstances modify the operation of this power. These are, cohesion, elasticity, quantity of matter, gravity, and the imponderable agents.

I. *Cohesion.* In order that substances should combine with each other, it is necessary that their particles should be in contact. But cohesion holds together the particles of each substance, so that they cannot be freely intermingled. Cohesion must, therefore, be destroyed to facilitate chemical action. This may be effected in three ways: —

1. *By reducing the substance to powder.*

Exp. Take two pieces of crystallized nitrate of copper; roll one of them up in tin foil; grind the other to powder, and wrap it in a piece of the same metal; drop a little water upon both as they are rolled up. In a few minutes, that which is pulverized will combine with the metal, and burst into a flame, while the other will not be affected.

Exp. Take two equal portions of chalk, and pulverize one; pour

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* *Single* and *double elective affinity* are the same in principle. The only difference is, that, in the one case, a compound is decomposed by a third substance, and but two affinities are in operation, while, in the other, two compounds mutually decompose each other, and four affinities are brought into action.

dilute sulphuric acid on each, and the action will be rapid in the case of the pulverized chalk, but moderate in the other case. In this experiment, one of the substances is in solution; and usually it will be found insufficient to pulverize both substances, and resort must be had to the second method.

2. *By dissolving the body in some liquid.*

Exp. Mix together tartaric acid and carbonate of soda; no action will follow; pour on water, and they will be dissolved, and a violent action ensue.

Solution is effected when a solid is put into a liquid, and entirely disappears, leaving the liquor clear. The body which thus disappears is said to be *soluble;* the liquid is called a *solvent*, and the compound liquor a *solution.* Water is the principal solvent; alcohol, ether, oils, alkalies, and acids, are also employed. When water, or any solvent, has dissolved as much of any substance as it can, it is said to be *saturated*, and the solution is called a *saturated solution.*

Solution should not be confounded with diffusion, which is merely a mechanical mixture.

Exp. This distinction may be seen by mixing magnesia in water. The particles of magnesia are suspended at first in the water, rendering it turbid, and they would soon subside to the bottom; but if nitric acid be added, the magnesia will be dissolved, and the water will become clear.

Most substances are more soluble in hot than in cold water; as a hot saturated solution cools, the water will not therefore be able to hold in solution all of the substance which had been dissolved, and it appears again in a solid state. The power of cohesion has the ascendency over the affinity of the liquid for the solid, and forms the latter into crystals. Hence the *phenomena of crystallization* are owing to the ascendency of cohesion over affinity.

By evaporation, also, the solid may be recovered from solution. In either case, the crystallization is often confused, especially when the process is rapid.

Insolubility has been found to exert a remarkable influence on affinity, in the case of an alkali with two acids, or an acid with two alkalies, one of which will form with the alkali a soluble, and the other an insoluble compound. The one which is insoluble is always formed in preference to the soluble compound.

Exp. Thus, if nitric and sulphuric acids and baryta be thrown together in water, sulphate of baryta, which is *insoluble*, will be formed in preference to nitrate of baryta, which is *soluble.*

It is obvious that, while the solution of one of the substances

is usually necessary, the solution of both will further facilitate the action.

3. *By heat.* — *Fusion* is the reduction of a solid to a liquid state by caloric, and facilitates chemical action by enabling the particles to intermingle, and come within the sphere of each other's affinity. In liquids a slight degree of cohesion remains, and hence heat is applied to them with advantage. A hot liquid will act more powerfully upon most solids than the same liquid when cold.

II. *Elasticity.* Cohesion, as we have seen, opposes chemical action by keeping the particles out of the sphere of each other's influence. *Elasticity*, or the gaseous state, is still more unfavorable to the operation of affinity, because the particles are removed too far from each other to be attracted; hence most gases, though possessing a strong attraction for each other, will not combine unless they are in the *nascent state*, that is, when in the act of assuming the gaseous form.

In this way elasticity not only prevents chemical union, but it favors decomposition.

1. When two highly-elastic gases combine, forming a liquid or solid, the compound will be decomposed by a very slight cause: the *chloride of nitrogen* is a familiar example. It is an oily liquid, composed of two gases. A slight elevation of temperature will cause instant decomposition, even with explosive violence. Generally all compounds which contain a volatile principle are easily decomposed by a high temperature. Hence caloric sometimes favors *chemical action by destroying cohesion*, while at others it *prevents it, and favors decomposition* by promoting *elasticity.*

2. There are some gases, however, which readily combine at a high temperature, as in the case of *gaseous explosive mixtures.* Oxygen and hydrogen gases require the heat of flame to effect their union. The caloric, in such cases, according to Berthollet, expands the gases in immediate contact with the flame, which acts as a violent condensing force to contiguous portions, and brings them within the sphere of each other's attraction. The same explanation is applied to the combination of gases effected by passing electric shocks through them.

III. *Quantity of Matter.* Oxygen combines with lead in

three proportions, forming three distinct compounds. The peroxide, or that which has the greatest quantity of oxygen, is easily decomposed by heat; the second compound, in which there is less oxygen, requires a higher temperature to effect decomposition; and the third, which has the least oxygen, will sustain the heat of our furnaces without yielding up its oxygen. Hence, generally, when one substance combines with another in several proportions, *the affinity is stronger in the case of the less than of the greater portions.**

On this principle, also, when a salt is dissolved in water, the first portions are dissolved more rapidly than the last, and the force of affinity diminishes up to the point of saturation, when it is overcome by the cohesion of the solid.

This principle led Berthollet to account for all chemical changes without the aid of affinity, the existence of which he was disposed to deny; but M. Dulong has found that the principle of Berthollet is not in accordance with the results of experiment.

IV. *Gravity.* The influence of gravity on chemical action is seen when substances of different *specific gravities* combine; as, when two liquids are put together, the heavier liquid will sink to the bottom; or, when salt is dissolved in water, the salt will remain at the bottom, and prevent the particles of water from coming into contact with those of the salt.

V. *Imponderable Agents.* The influence of caloric over chemical phenomena has already been alluded to. It favors chemical action in the case of solids, by destroying cohesion, and opposes chemical action in the case of gases, by increasing their elasticity. The influence of light has already been noticed. Common electricity is often employed for the combination of gases, and galvanism for decompositions; but the same effects may be produced by either.

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* In consequence of the influence of quantity of matter over chemical changes, the chemist generally employs more of one substance than is necessary to effect the decomposition of another.

Measure of Affinity.

Since some substances have a stronger affinity than others, attempts have been made to measure its different degrees of force. It was once supposed that its relative strength could be ascertained by the order of decomposition, as may be explained from the following table : —

	Sulphuric Acid.	
Baryta,		Lime,
Strontia,		Ammonia,
Potassa,		Magnesia.
Soda,		

If to the sulphuric acid, united with the magnesia, forming the sulphate of magnesia, ammonia be added, the acid will leave the magnesia, and elect the ammonia, forming the sulphate of ammonia. If to this, lime be added, the acid will desert the ammonia, and unite with the lime; this again will be decomposed by the soda, and so on to baryta. Hence sulphuric acid has the strongest affinity for the baryta, and the force is in the order in which the several substances are arranged.

Exp. This order may be shown experimentally thus: To a filtered solution of nitrate of silver add metallic mercury; the silver will be precipitated, and the nitric acid will combine with mercury, forming the nitrate of mercury. Immerse in this a piece of clean sheet lead; the mercury will now be precipitated, and the lead will remain in solution.

Suspend in this a strip of clean copper; the lead will be thrown down, and the nitrate of copper will remain in solution.

In this place a sheet of bright iron, and in a short time the iron will displace the copper, forming a solution of nitrate of iron.

To this present a piece of zinc; the iron will be separated, and the zinc will combine with the acid.

Add liquid ammonia ; the zinc will be separated, and nitrate of ammonia remain in solution.

To this pour lime water; the ammonia will be liberated in the form of a gas, and nitrate of lime remain in solution.

Add to this oxalic acid, and the oxalate of lime will be thrown down, while a mixture of water and nitric acid remains.

Hence the practical chemist, when he wishes to decompose any compound, is enabled to decide upon the substance which will produce that effect.

But the circumstances which modify the action of chemical affinity are so numerous, that the *order* of decomposition is not, in every case, the *measure* of affinity. To determine the

relative force of affinity in doubtful cases, observe the tendency of several substances to unite with the same, under the same circumstances ; and then notice the apparent facility of decomposition, when these compounds are exposed to the same decomposing agent.

Effects of Affinity.

The changes which accompany the action of affinity are changes of chemical properties — of color, form, temperature, and specific gravity.

I. *Change of Chemical Properties.* It is one of the most remarkable facts in chemistry, that, when two bodies combine chemically, the compound is *generally* possessed of properties entirely different from those of the components.

Exp. 1. Pour sulphuric acid upon magnesia, and the compound will be Epsom salts, entirely unlike either.
Exp. 2. Burn oxygen and hydrogen gases, and water will be formed, which is wholly different from either of its constituents.

There are some cases in which affinity produces compounds without much change of properties, as in the case of *solution ;* but the force of affinity in such cases is very feeble.

Exp. Salt dissolved in water, and camphor in alcohol, are instances.

II. *Change of color* is often the effect of affinity.

Exp. 1. To the chloride of calcium add nitrate of silver, both in solution ; a white precipitate will be formed, which is the chloride of silver. (See page 69.)
Exp. 2. To a solution of nitrate of lead add a few drops of hydriodic acid, and a beautiful yellow pigment will be formed.
Exp. 3. Into an infusion of purple cabbage pour a few drops of any alkali, and the color will become green ; add an acid gradually, drop by drop,* and the purple color will be restored ; add a few drops more

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* For this and similar purposes, the dropping tube *a* (Fig. 59) may be used. It is a glass tube, with a bulb, as *a*, with a small aperture at the smaller

Fig. 59.

end, through which any liquid may be drawn up into the bulb by placing the mouth upon the larger end. Having partially filled the bulb, place the thumb over this end, and, by admitting the air slowly, the liquid will drop out at the smaller end.

of acid, and it will become red. By the gradual addition of the alkali, the effects may now be reversed.

III. *Change of form* frequently accompanies chemical combination.

Exp. 1. Take oxygen and hydrogen gases, and explode them; they will form a liquid — water. Hence chemical affinity converts gases into liquids.

Exp. 2. If the two gases, ammonia and the hydrochloric acid, be brought together in their nascent state, i. e., at the moment of their formation, they will produce the solid hydrochlorate of ammonia. Hence chemical affinity converts gases into solids. The two gases may be formed by putting hydrochlorate of ammonia and

Fig. 60.

lime in one retort, (Fig. 60,) and liquid hydrochloric acid in the other, and applying heat; as the gases meet in the glass receiver *b*, they will combine and form a white solid.
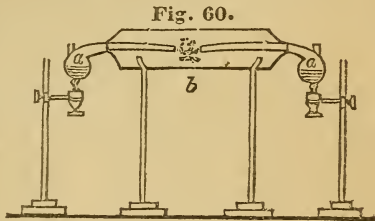
Exp. 3. Take chloride of calcium in solution, and pour in sulphuric acid; a solid precipitate — the sulphate of lime — will be thrown down. Hence affinity converts liquids into solids.

Exp. 4. Into a solution of pearlash or saleratus pour sulphuric acid, and a portion of the liquid is converted into the form of a gas, which escapes with effervescence.

Exp. Add one part of fuming nitric acid to two of alcohol; both liquids will be converted into ammonia, and pass off in gas. Hence affinity converts liquids into gases.

Exp. 5. Mix two solids, the nitrate of ammonia and sulphate of soda; on rubbing them in a mortar, they will become liquid. Hence chemical affinity converts solids into liquids.

Exp. 6. Explode gunpowder; it will be wholly converted into gas. Hence chemical affinity converts solids into gases.

IV. *Change of Temperature.* The heat arising from the combustion of fuel, is owing to chemical action.

Exp. Wet a piece of paper with spirits of turpentine and sulphuric acid, and then throw on a few grains of chlorate of potassa; the paper will instantly be in flames.

V. *Change of Specific Gravity.* In changes of gases into liquids or solids, or of the latter into the former, there is, of course, a great change of density. But where there is no change of form, there is usually more or less of this change.

Exp. Mix 100 measures of strong sulphuric acid with 100 of water, and the mixture will be less than 200 measures.

Laws of Chemical Affinity.

The laws which regulate the action of affinity, constitute the most important part of the whole subject; for they are the foundation of modern chemistry. As they are expressed mathematically, they have consequently imparted to it a high degree of accuracy, and greatly elevated its rank as a science. Most substances have been found to combine in *definite proportions*, and with such the laws of affinity are chiefly concerned; but there are numerous cases of apparently indefinite proportions, which first demand a separate consideration.

I. *Indefinite Proportions.* Of these there are two cases, in the first of which, any quantity of one substance may be combined with any quantity of another. Thus a drop of alcohol will combine with a quart of water, or a drop of water with a quart of alcohol.

Exp. Take a large glass vessel, and fill it nearly full of water; color it purple with the infusion of red cabbage; a drop of sulphuric acid will change it red, or a drop of alkali will give it a green color, which shows that both the acid and the alkali must combine with the whole of the water.

In the second case, the proportions are indefinite within certain limits. Thus with $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of water, a pound or any less quantity of common salt will combine, but if a larger quantity of salt be employed, all the excess above a pound will remain undissolved. The limit to the process is the point of saturation. (See page 108.)

The most common instances of indefinite proportions are solutions where the proportions are indefinite below the point of saturation. Instances of unlimited indefinite proportions are less numerous. It is important to observe, in these cases, that the force of affinity is usually feeble, and the change of properties slight. Thus, in the common liquors, the properties of the alcohol are slightly modified by its combination with water; and in solutions there is also little change.

II. *Definite Proportions by Weight.* In the most numerous and interesting cases of chemical combination, a certain portion of one substance unites with one, two, three, or

more t mes a given weight of another. These cases are usually characterized by a greater energy of combination, and a much greater change of properties than those which have been described. The great law of definite proportions by weight may be thus stated : —

1. *The proportions in which substances combine may be expressed by fixed numbers, or by the multiples of these numbers.* The following table is an illustration : —

Water	is composed of	Hydrogen	1 part	+	Oxygen	8 parts.
Binoxide of Hydrogen	"	"	1 "	+	" 16	"
Protoxide of Nitrogen	"	Nitrogen	14 "	+	" 8	"
Binoxide	"	"	14 "	+	" 16	"
Hyponitrous acid	"	"	14 "	+	" 24	"
Nitrous acid	"	"	14 "	+	" 32	"
Nitric acid	"	"	14 "	+	" 40	"

A comparison of all the cases shows that hydrogen enters into combination in less quantity relatively than any other substance. It is therefore taken for a standard of comparison, and in the above table appears as *unity*. The lowest ratio in which oxygen combines with other substances is eight times that of hydrogen. The lowest combining ratio of nitrogen is fourteen. If any simple substance does not combine with hydrogen, its lowest combining ratio may be ascertained from its combination with any other substance, whose ratio has been determined. Thus from the above table the combining ratio of nitrogen is seen in its compounds with oxygen, whose ratio was ascertained in its compounds with hydrogen. The *lowest combining ratio* is also called an *equivalent*, or *proportional*. (See page 107.)

Inspection of the above table will show, that while eight is the lowest combining ratio of oxygen, it combines also in the ratio of 16, 24, 32, and 40 parts; that is, two, three, four, and five times the lowest ratio, agreeable to the above-mentioned law.

There are some cases in which substances do not unite with one equivalent of one to one, two, or more equivalents of another, but apparently of one to one and a half. Such an irregularity conforms to the general law, on the supposi-

tion that two of the former unite with three of the latter. In some cases, also, two equivalents of one substance unite with five of another.

The law of definite proportions by weight may be thus illustrated algebraically : — If x and y be the equivalents of any two substances, their compounds must be $x + y$, $x + 2y$, $x + 3y$, $x + 4y$, etc.; sometimes we shall have $2x + 3y$, and rarely $2x + 5y$.

It is evident from the above that *the equivalent of any compound is the sum of the equivalents of its constituents*, each being multiplied by the number of times it enters into the combination. Thus, in the above table, the equivalent of water is $1 + 8 = 9$, of nitric acid, $14 + 40 = 54$, etc.

2. The second law of definite proportions is the following : —

Every substance has its constitution invariable. Thus nitric acid is always composed of one equivalent of nitrogen and five of oxygen. No other substances, and no other number of equivalents of these, by combination can form nitric acid.

The same is true of every substance whose elements combine in definite proportions. The least change of these determinate quantities will either form an entirely different substance, or a portion of that substance which is in excess will remain uncombined; hence whatever be the circumstances under which chemical substances are formed, whether formed ages ago by the hand of nature, or quite recently by the agency of the chemist, their composition is always invariable.

The merit of establishing this law is due to Wenzel, a Saxon chemist, who published his views in 1777. But Dr Dalton, an eminent English chemist, discovered the first law, and deduced from the scattered facts a theory of chemical union, embracing the whole science, and first published in 1803. Drs. Wollaston, Thompson, and other chemists, followed out these views. But to no one, in this department, is science so much indebted as to Berzelius

The application of these laws, in the arts, is of immense importance. In the manufacture of compounds, they teach precisely what proportions of the ingredients should be used If these are expensive, an excess of one would be a serious loss.

III. *Definite Proportions by Volume.* The principal law of definite proportions by volume is precisely similar to that of definite proportions by weight, the parts being determined by measure, as in the former case by weight. This law holds true only in the case of gases and vapors. It is supposed that substances which have not yet been made to assume the form of a gas or vapor, would conform to this law, if they should assume such form. The law may be illustrated by the following table: —

| 100 vols. carbonic acid gas combine with 100 of ammoniacal gas. |
| " " " " 200 " |
| " fluoboric " " 100 " |
| " " " " 200 " |

But there are two laws of definite proportions by volume, which do not hold true to the same extent in definite proportions by weight. The first is, that a *simple ratio* of one to two, one to three, &c., exists between the volumes of different constituents in the same compound. This may be seen in the above table.

The second law is, that, in combination, gases and vapors are *condensed* by a portion, which is in a *simple ratio* to the volume of *one* of the constituents.

The laws of definite proportion by weight and by volume are not inconsistent with each other, for the specific gravity always bears such a relation to the combining ratio by volume as to establish their harmony. Thus hydrogen and oxygen combine in the ratio of two of the former to one of the latter by volume, and of one to eight by weight. But as oxygen is sixteen times heavier than hydrogen, one volume of it is eight times as heavy as two of the latter. In other words, the compound ratio of the specific gravity and of the equiva lents by volume, is equal to the ratio of the equivalents by weight.

Atomic Theory.

Existence of Atoms. The atomic theory supposes matter to be composed of minute, indivisible atoms. Hypothetically, matter is infinitely divisible, that is, to Almighty power but in fact it is not infinitely divided. Sir Isaac Newton regarded it as probable, "that the primitive particles, being solids, are incomparably harder than any porous bodies compounded of them, even so very hard as never to wear, or break in pieces; no ordinary power being able to divide what God himself made one in the first creation."

Theory of definite Proportions by Weight. When substances combine in their lowest equivalents, they unite atom to atom, (Fig. 61;) in higher proportions, one atom of one to two, three, or more atoms of the other.

Fig. 61.

This theory exactly accounts for the facts of definite proportions; for if in one compound we have one atom of A joined to one of B, and in another one of A joined to two of B, through the whole mass, the sum total of B in the latter case will be exactly twice as much as in the former case.

Atomic Weight. If in a compound of one grain of hydrogen with eight of oxygen there be an equal number of atoms of each, an atom of the latter will be eight times as heavy as an atom of the former. In this way we know the relative weights of the atoms of all substances, whose equivalents are known. As the numbers are the same, the terms are often interchanged.

The *absolute weight* and *magnitude* of atoms cannot be determined. Dr. Thompson calculates that a cubic inch of lead contains more than 883,492,000,000 atoms.

The *shape* of atoms is matter of hypothesis. They are generally supposed to be spheroidal.

Isomerism.

It was formerly supposed that when two elements combine in the same ratio, they must always give rise to the same compound; but it has of late been discovered that this is not always the case. Thus there are 3 compounds of oxygen and phosphorus, whose composition is identical, each being composed of 31.4 parts by weight of phosphorus, and 40 parts by weight of oxygen; and yet these substances differ in their properties. The same is true of the two cyanic acids. Berzelius has applied to such compounds, as a class, the general term *isomeric*, from two Greek words,* which expresses an equality in the ingredients; and to distinguish the isomeric bodies from each other the terms *para*† and *meta* are prefixed.

To reconcile the phenomena of isomerism with the theories of chemical combination, we have only to suppose that the same elements may combine in different ways, so as to give rise to compounds essentially distinct; for example, we may suppose that the 2 atoms of phosphorus and the 5 atoms of oxygen, which form 3 isomeric bodies, may be grouped differently; thus, 2 atoms of oxygen may first unite with the other 2 of phosphorus, and this compound unite with the other 3 atoms of oxygen, or 4 of oxygen may unite with 1 of phosphorus, and 1 of oxygen with 1 of phosphorus: these two compounds may then combine, and form a different substance from the first, although both contain the same number of atoms of each element. It is evident that these groups may be varied still further; hence the kind of substance may depend upon the order in which the atoms are united. In a few cases, the equivalents of isomeric bodies differ: olefiant gas and etherine are an example. The equivalent of olefiant gas is 14.24, and that of etherine 28.48, or exactly double.

Cause of Chemical Affinity.

The cause of affinity has been supposed to be *electricity*. It appears that when two substances combine, they are in opposite states of electricity. It is believed to accord best with the

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* Ισος, equal, and μερος, part.   † Παρα, near to.

simplicity every where observed in the laws of nature to ascribe the phenomena of electricity, galvanism, magnetism, and chemical affinity, to one and the same agent. By such a generalization we seem to be progressing in the chain of causation nearer to the great and ultimate cause, the agency of God. But such a view, in the present state of science cannot be maintained; and, although these agents have many points of resemblance, they differ in too many respects to be regarded as identical. In fact, we should be under the necessity of believing that a force might modify, increase, diminish, counteract, and overcome, *itself*. Some suppose that what we call the agents and laws of nature, have no real existence as distinct powers. They deny the agency of *second causes*, and ascribe every operation of nature to the immediate power of God. Others suppose that there are real agents or causes dependent upon God, but possessed of power in themselves, to act as *second causes*, or *subordinate* agents, in the various phenomena of matter. Whichever view we take, we must, in the end, refer the ultimate cause to the impulse of the divine will; although, for the mere purposes of scientific classification, something, perhaps, is gained by the introduction of second causes.

PART III.

PONDERABLE BODIES

Specific Gravity means the relative weight of different substances, compared with some standard. In the case of solids and liquids, the weight of the body is compared with water as unity; i. e., if a given quantity of water by *measure* be weighed,* and that weight represented by 1, the weight of an equal quantity by measure of any other substance is compared with it. In the case of gases, air is taken for the standard of comparison, or for unity, and an equal quantity of any other gas is weighed, and compared with it.

There are several methods of ascertaining the specific gravities of bodies.

Fig. 62.

1. One of the best, if the body is a solid, is to weigh it in the air, and then in water, in a manner represented in Fig. 62. If the body weighs 100 grains in the air, and 60 grains in water, then, to ascertain its specific gravity, institute the following proportion : As 100 — 60, or 40 : 100 : : 1 : 2.5 ; hence the sp. gr. of the body is 2.5, or two and a half times as heavy as water. If the solid is lighter than water, suspend to it a body heavier than water, whose specific gravity is known, and then weigh it as in the first instance.

2. To ascertain the specific gravity of liquids, the *Arcometer* is a convenient instrument. It consists of a tube,

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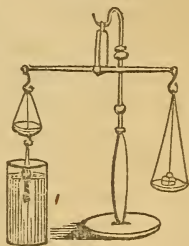
a, (Fig. 63,) graduated with numbers, upon the end
of which are two balls, the lower filled with mer-
cury. If the instrument sink in distilled water to
1, it will sink below that mark in liquids which
are lighter than water, and will remain above it
n those which are heavier. The specific gravity
of each liquid is thus ascertained by the numbers
on the scale.

The specific gravity of liquids is also ascertained
by the use of a small bottle containing just 1000
grains of water; by filling it with any other liquid, its weight
will express directly its specific gravity.

3. The specific gravity of gases is more difficult: a given
portion of air is carefully weighed in a thin glass flask; the
air is then exhausted, and the flask weighed; the difference
gives the weight of the air; this is taken for unity, and the
weight of an equal quantity of any other gas is compared
with it; thus, 100 cubic inches of dry air, at 60° F. and
30 in. barometer, weigh 31.0117 grains; 100 cubic inches of
oxygen weigh 34.109 grains. Now, to ascertain the sp. gr
of oxygen, institute the following proportion : —

As 31.0117 : 34.109 : : 1, the sp. gr. of air, to 1.1025,
the sp. gr. of oxygen. The sp. gr. of any other gas may be
found in the same way.

Nomenclature.

The study of particular substances has been greatly facili
tated by the introduction of the *nomenclature.* By the use of
systematic *names, expressive of the constitution* of substances,
the recollection of the name will call to mind the constitu·
tion ; while, on the other hand, if there be any difficulty in
remembering names, the constitution will at once show what
the name must be. Hence, although compounds are very
numerous, the student can have no difficulty in remembering
their names and constitution, for the one necessarily suggests
the other.

The present nomenclature was introduced in 1787 by the
French chemists. It resulted from the labors of Lavoisier,
Berthollet, Guyton-Morveau, and Fourcroy. Since that time,
it has undergone but a few slight changes. The former no-

menclature, if such the entire want of system could be called, was barbarous in the extreme; fanciful names were introduced, and often many such were attached to the same substance.

1. *Simple Substances.* The names of such elementary substances as had long been known, remain unaltered, as of gold, iron, etc. Those which have been discovered within the period of modern chemistry, have received names expressive of some obvious property; thus the name oxygen signifies a generator of acids; iodine, violet-colored, from the beautiful color of its vapor; chlorine, green, from the color of the gas. The following are the names of the simple substances, with their symbols annexed: —

Oxygen,	O.	Cadmium,	Cd.
Chlorine,	Cl.	Tin, (Stannum,)	Sn.
Iodine,	I.	Cobalt,	Co.
Bromine,	Br.	Nickel,	Ni.
Fluorine,	F.	Arsenic,	As.
Hydrogen,	H.	Chromium,	Cr.
Nitrogen,	N.	Vanadium,	V.
Carbon,	C.	Molybdenum,	Mo.
Sulphur,	S.	Tungsten, (Wolfram,)	W.
Phosphorus,	P.	Columbium, (Tantalum,)	Ta.
Boron,	B.	Antimony, (Stibium,)	Sb
Silicon,	Si.	Uranium,	U.
Selenium,	Se.	Cerium,	Ce.
Potassium, (Kalium,)	K.	Bismuth,	Bi.
Sodium, (Natrium,)	Na.	Titanium,	Ti.
Lithium,	L.	Tellurium,	Te.
Barium,	Ba.	Copper, (Cuprum,)	Cu.
Strontium,	Sr.	Lead, (Plumbum,)	Pb.
Calcium,	Ca.	Mercury, (Hydrargyrum,)	Hg
Magnesium,	Mg.	Silver, (Argentum,)	Ag.
Aluminium,	Al.	Gold, (Aurum,)	Au.
Glucinum,	G.	Platinum,	Pl.
Yttrium,	Y.	Palladium,	Pd.
Thorium,	Th.	Rhodium,	R.
Zirconium,	Zr.	Osmium,	Os.
Manganese,	Mn.	Iridium,	Ir
Iron, (Ferrum,)	Fe.	Latanium.	La
Zinc,	Zn.		

2. *Acid Compounds.* The names of acid compounds have a peculiar construction. All the acids formed by combination of oxygen with other substances, including a great majority of the whole number, take the name of the other substance, (which is called the *base,*) changing its termination. If there

be two oxygen acids formed with the same substance, the stronger, which contains more oxygen, takes the termination *ic*, and the weaker, *ous*. In the case of more numerous acid compounds, the prefix *hypo* signifies inferiority, as in the following of oxygen with sulphur, beginning with the stronger, and proceeding to the weaker :—

Sulphuric acid,	Sulphurous acid,
Hyposulphuric acid,	Hyposulphurous acid.

Sometimes the prefix *per* is used to indicate an additional, but indefinite quantity of oxygen. Thus *perchloric acid* contains more oxygen than *chloric acid.*

Acids which do not contain oxygen receive names which are compounded of the names of their constituents, the first enunciated terminating in *o*, and the last in *ic;* as, chloro-carbonic acid. Often the first is shortened; as, fluo-boric, instead of fluro-boric : this is the case with the hydrogen acids; as, hydrochloric acid, hydrosulphuric acid.

3. *Binary Compounds which are not Acids.* In such compounds, the names are composed of the names of their constituents. In the compounds of oxygen, chlorine, iodine, bromine, and fluorine, with other substances, they are first enunciated, and receive the termination *ide;* as, oxide of iron, chloride of iron, iodide of mercury, bromide of carbon, fluoride of zinc. In their compounds with each other, the order of enunciation is not essential, although it is commonly that in which they are above mentioned; thus we may say, chloride of bromine, or bromide of chlorine; but the former is more common.

Compounds of the other non-metallic substances with each other and with the metals, receive names of similar construction, except that the termination *uret* takes the place of *ide;* as, carburet of iron, bicarburet of hydrogen, sulphuret of arsenic.

In many cases, one substance unites with another in several proportions, and the compounds are designated by numeral prefixes — *proto* the first, *bi* (formerly *deuto* was used) the second, *ter* the third, *quadro* the fourth, etc., and *per* the

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* The *e* is omitted by some chemists, who write *oxid* for *oxide.*

highest degree, but indefinite; *sesqui* signifies one and a half. If, however, the last enunciated substance, or base, be in two or more proportions, the dividing prefixes *di, tri,* etc., are used; *subsequi* indicates one and a half of the base.

The following table exhibits all the cases of the use of numeral prefixes:

Triphosphuret of copper	= 1 equiv. phosphorus and 3 equiv. copper
Dinoxide of copper	= 1 " oxygen and 2 " copper.
Subsesquiphosphuret of copper	= 1 " phosphorus and 1½ " copper.
Protoxide of copper	= 1 " oxygen and 1 " copper.
Sesquioxide of manganese	= 1½ " oxygen and 1 " manganese.
Binoxide of manganese	= 2 " oxygen and 1 " manganese.
Teriodide of nitrogen	= 3 " iodine and 1 " nitrogen.
Quadrochloride of nitrogen	= 4 " chlorine and 1 " nitrogen.
Peroxide of iron = iron oxidated in the highest degree.	

Many metals, whose names terminate in *um*, merely change *ium* or *um* into *a* to indicate the state of protoxide. Thus potassa = protoxide of potassium, lithia = protoxide of lithium, etc. The protoxide of calcium has long been known by the name of lime.

Alloys, or compounds of metals with each other, not being yet reduced to the laws of definite proportions, have no systematic names.

Some binary compounds, whose combinations are analogous to those of simple substances, receive simple names, which in composition receive the termination *uret,* and follow the rules above given. These are *ammonia* and *cyanogen.* Another binary compound, *water,* forms compounds which are called *hydrates;* as, *hydrate of lime.*

4 *Ternary Compounds,* or *Salts.* These are formed by the combination of acids with other binary compounds, which are called, in reference to them, *bases.* The name of a salt is composed of the names of the acid and base. If the name of the acid have a termination *ic,* it is changed into *ate; ous* is changed into *ite.* Numeral prefixes are used according to the rules which have been given, as in the following examples: —

Dinitrate of the protoxide of lead	= 1 eq. nitric acid and 2 eq. protoxide of lead
Protonitrate of mercury	= 1 " " and 1 " " of mercury
Sesquisulphate of potassa	= 1½ " sulphuric acid & 1 " potassa.
Bisulphate of peroxide of mercury	= 2 " ' and 1 " perox. of mercury
Tersulphate of alumina	= 3 " and 1 " alumina.

As the acids never unite with the metals directly, but generally with their oxides, and sometimes other compounds, in the case of the oxides, the name is abbreviated: thus, by protonitrate of mercury is always understood protonitrate of the protoxide of mercury. Also, the prefix *proto* is often understood, and we say, nitrate of mercury.

There are many ternary compounds, little known, however, except to the chemist, called sulphur salts, and haloid salts, whose nomenclature follows the rules of binary compounds which are not acid.

Notation.

Notwithstanding the great advantages of the chemical nomenclature, a much greater help is given to the student in the *notation*. By this, as in algebra, long and intricate processes are exhibited to the eye at a glance, and the relations of the constituents in complicated compounds easily comprehended. Each element is represented by a symbol consisting of its initial, or, in the case of two or more which have the same initial, of the initial and one of the following letters, as on page 123, where the symbols of all the elementary substances are given. In the case of potassium, sodium, tin, iron, and several others, the symbols are derived from the Latin names.

The symbols of compounds are composed of the symbols of their constituents, algebraically connected; as, $Fe + Cl$, chloride of iron. In binary compounds, the sign $+$ is often omitted. Coefficients are used to show the number of equivalents; as, $N + 4Cl$, quadrochloride of nitrogen; or, if several symbols are written together without the sign $+$, an index is substituted for the coefficient, because the coefficient multiplies all which come between it and the next sign. Thus the symbol of the substance last mentioned may be written NCl^4. Some Chemists place the index thus NCl_4.

Cyanogen, ammonia, and water, although compounds, have simple symbols, like the elements; thus we have Cy, Am, and Aq, (*Aqua*,) instead of NC^2, H^3N, and HO

The symbols of oxygen and sulphur are abbreviated. The symbols for the compounds of oxygen are written thus : —
$\ddot{\ddot{N}}$ for $N + 5O$, $\ddot{\ddot{N}}$ for $N + 4O$, $\dddot{N}$ for $N + 3O$, etc., each dot indicating an equivalent of oxygen. A comma is used in the same manner for the compounds of sulphur; thus, $\dot{P}$ for PS In place of the coefficient 2, a dash is often drawn through or beneath the symbol. This is very convenient in the case of half equivalents; as, $\dot{\overline{Mn}}$, signifying $2Mn + 3O$, that is, $Mn + 1\frac{1}{2}O$, sesquioxide of manganese. In compounds of complicated constitution, it is often necessary to multiply several terms by one number, or to connect them as a whole to another term. This is done, as in algebra, by the use of vincula or parentheses; thus $(\dot{K} + 2\ddot{S}) + Aq$, shows that Aq is combined with $\dot{K} + 2\ddot{S}$, as with one substance; but if the parentheses were omitted, thus, $\dot{K} + 2\ddot{S} + Aq$, the symbol would indicate a combination of three distinct substances, each one with the other. Also in $2(\dot{K} + 2\ddot{S})$, the first coefficient belongs to what is within the parentheses as to one substance.

If the student will, for practice, explain the constitution and give the names of the compounds in the annexed table, he will become familiar with the rules of nomenclature and notation.

The following table contains the names, equivalents, and symbols of the thirteen non-metallic elements, and the symbols of their compounds with each other, in the order in which they are described in this work : —

Oxygen, equiv. 8; symbol, O.

Chlorine,	" 35.42	"	Cl, Cl+O, Cl+4O, Cl+5O, Cl+7O.
Iodine,	" 126.3	"	I, I+5O, I+7O, 3Cl+I.
Bromine,	" 78	"	Br, Br+5O or BrO⁵.
Fluorine,	" 18.68	"	F.
Hydrogen,	" 1	"	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} H,\ H+O\ or\ \dot{H},\ H+2O\ or\ \ddot{H},\ H+Cl, \\ H+I,\ H+Br,\ H+F\ or\ HF. \end{array} \right.$
Nitrogen,	" 14.15	"	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} N,\ NO\ or\ \dot{N},\ NO^2\ or\ \ddot{N},\ NO^3\ or\ \dddot{N},\ NO^4 \\ or\ \ddddot{N},\ NO^5\ or\ \ddddot{N},\ NCl^4,\ NI^3,\ NH^3. \end{array} \right.$

Carbon, equiv. 6.12; sym. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} C, \dot{C}, \ddot{C}, C+Cl, C^4Cl^5, C^2Cl, CCl^3, \dot{C}+ \\ Cl, CH^2, C^2H^2, C^4H^4, C^6H^3, C^6H^5, C^{10}H^4 \\ C^{15}H^6, C^{10}H^8, HCy, CyO, Cy^3O^6H^3, CyC^7 \\ CyCl^2, HCyS^2, CyS^2, H^2CyS^2. \end{array}\right.$

Sulphur, " 16.1 " $\left\{\begin{array}{l} S, SO^2, SO^3, \underline{SO^4}, \underline{SO^5}, S^2Cl, SCl, HS \\ HS^2, CS^2. \end{array}\right.$

Phosphorus," 15.7 " $\left\{\begin{array}{l} P, P^2O, P^3O, P^2O^3, P^2O^5, P^2Cl^3, P^2Cl^5, Pl \\ P^2I^3, PBr, P^2Br^5, H^3P^2. \end{array}\right.$

Boron, " 10.9 " $\quad B, B+3O, B+3Cl, B+3F.$

Selenium, " 39.6 " $\left\{\begin{array}{l} Se, Se+O \text{ or } S\dot{e}, Se+2O \text{ or } S\ddot{e}, Se+3O \\ \text{ or } S\dddot{e}. \end{array}\right.$

Silicon, " 22.5 " $\quad Si, Si+O, SiCl, SiBr, SiS, SiF.$

CHAPTER I.

CHEMICAL SUBSTANCES.

These substances will be arranged in three classes: 1st, non-metallic elements, and their primary compounds, with each other; 2d, metals, with their primary compounds; and 3d, secondary compounds, or salts.

Class I. *Non-metallic Elements and their Primary Compounds with each other.*

Sect. 1. Oxygen.

Symb. O.　　Equiv. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{by vol. 50.} \\ \text{" wgt. 8.} \end{array}\right.$　　Sp. gr. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} 1.1024 \;\; \text{Air } = 1. \\ 16. \qquad \text{Hyd.} = 1. \end{array}\right.$

History. Oxygen was discovered by Dr. Priestley, of England, August, 1774, by exposing the red oxide of mercury to the solar focus. It was also discovered by Scheele, a Swedish chemist, in 1775, and the same year by Lavoisier, of Paris, neither being acquainted with the discovery by the others. The honor of the discovery, as is usual in such cases, is ascribed to Priestley, who called it *dephlogisticated air;* Scheele gave it the name o *empyreal air;* Condorcet, *vital air;* and Lavoisier, *oxygen.* This latter name was suggested from the belief that it was the only acidifying principle in nature. It

is derived from two Greek words,* signifying a generator of acids. It has since been found, however, that, although present in most acids, it is not the only substance capable of forming acid compounds. But, as a great majority of acids are oxygen acids, the name is not inappropriate.

Natural History. Oxygen is the most abundant substance known. It forms $\frac{1}{5}$ of the atmosphere, $\frac{8}{9}$ part of water. By far the greater part of the solid crust of the earth is composed of oxydized substances, and it will not be far from the truth, if we estimate oxygen to constitute $\frac{2}{9}$ of all the matter with which we are acquainted.†

Processes. Oxygen can easily be obtained from the oxides of metals, and from some of the salts. The oxides of manganese and of lead, and the chlorate of potassa, are most commonly used. The separation is effected by exposing these substances to a red heat, in an iron retort, connected by a pipe with the pneumatic cistern.

For the collection of gases which are not absorbed by water, the

Pneumatic Cistern is generally employed. It consists of an oblong box, C, (Fig. 64,) made water-tight; *b b*, two shelves to support receivers, as *r*; *w*, a well filled with water, across which a board is placed, also to support receivers, with small holes to let the gas through as it

Fig. 64.
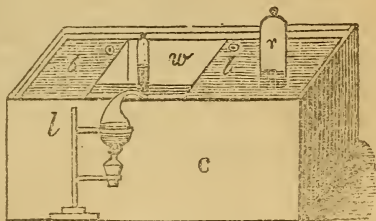
comes from the retort, which is placed over the side of the box. The shelves *b b* may be made for *gasometers*, or *gasholders*; and in that case they are boxes open at the bottom of the cistern, with stop-cocks passing through one corner in the top of each. These are made air-tight by a lining of sheet lead. When they are filled with water, the gas is introduced, by means of a lead pipe, through an aperture in the

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* Ὀξύς and γεννάω.

† If we suppose the sun and planets, with the stellary systems, to be composed of matter similar to our earth, the quantity of oxygen which actually exists must be immeasurably great.

side of each, near the bottom; as it rises up, it displaces the water; l is a lamp-stand and retort,* as it is connected with the cistern.†

Theory. To understand the theory of the process by manganese, it is necessary to notice the composition of its three oxides.

Manganese.				Oxygen.			
Protoxide,	27.7 or 1 equiv.	$+$	8 or 1	equiv.	$=$	35.7
Sesquioxide,	27.7	"	$+$ 12 or 1½	"	$=$	39.7
Peroxide,	27.7	"	$+$ 16 or 2	"	$=$	43.7

The oxygen may be separated from the binoxide in two ways: —

1. By simply exposing it to a red heat. In this case, the binoxide parts with ½ equiv. of oxygen, and is converted into sesquioxide. 1 oz. of manganese will yield 128 cubic inches of oxygen.

2. By putting it, in fine powder, into a glass flask, with an equal weight of concentrated sulphuric acid, and heating the mixture by a spirit lamp, the manganese parts with one equiv. of oxygen, and the sulphate of the protoxide of manganese remains. About twice the quantity of gas is obtained by this process, 1 oz. yielding 256 cubic inches of gas. But the former method is most convenient in practice.

For these processes, the manganese should be previously ascertained to be free from carbonate of lime, which yields carbonic acid gas on being heated.‡ Oxygen obtained in this way is not quite pure, but is sufficiently good for all purposes of experiment.

The gas obtained from chlorate of potassa is much purer, but more expensive.

It may be easily obtained by subjecting the salt to a dull red heat in a green or white glass flask, made without lead,

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* Retorts are either *plain*, as in Fig. 58, or *tubulated*, as Fig. 65. A Florence flask will answer a good purpose, if a lead tube is fitted to it. See Fig. 66.

† The cistern may be made of wood, or, what is better, of copper, of any convenient dimensions. One five feet long, twenty inches wide, and twenty inches in height, is sufficiently large for common purposes.

Fig. 65.

‡ It may be freed from carbonate of lime by washing it in dilute hydrochloric acid.

or in an iron retort.* It first becomes liquid, and is then resolved into oxygen and chloride of potassium.

Theory. The chlorate of potassa is composed of chloric acid and potassa, and the theory of the process may be thus explained : $KO + CLO^5$ are resolved into $K + CL$, which remains in the flask, and 6 equiv. of oxygen, which are collected over the cistern. One ounce of chlorate of potassa will give about 640 cubic inches of oxygen.

Physical Properties. Oxygen is transparent, colorless, tasteless, and inodorous. In the simple state, it always exists in the form of a gas. It cannot be condensed to a liquid or a solid, by pressure or cold. It refracts light the least of all substances; is a non-conductor of electricity; is the only substance whose electric state is *absolutely negative;* and of course it always goes to the *positive pole* in the galvanic circuit. Its specific gravity is 1.1026; consequently, 100 cubic inches, when the thermometer is at 60° Fahr. and the barometer at 30 inches, will weigh 34.1872 grains. It is a little heavier than atmospheric air.

Chemical Properties. Oxygen possesses more extensive powers of combination than any other substance. It may be made to combine with all the simple substances. For acids and alkalies it has little affinity, because these substances have already received their proportion of it. Some of its combinations with the metals, and with combustibles, are very energetic.

Exp. 1. Let down a pendent candle into a jar of the gas, (Fig. 67,) and it will burn with great brilliancy.

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*. The *iron retort* is an iron bottle with a long neck. After the salt or the manganese is put into it, it may be placed in a furnace, and a lead pipe, as *b* or *a*, (Fig. 66,) adapted to the mouth, by means of a cork, *a, a.* The cork is first perforated by a hot, sharp iron, and enlarged, so as exactly to fit the tube, by a round file ; it is then pressed into the mouth of the bottle. The other end may then be conveyed to any part of the pneumatic cistern, or to the gasometers. This is the simplest mode of connecting apparatus together ; and it may be done either with glass or lead tubes.

Fig. 66.
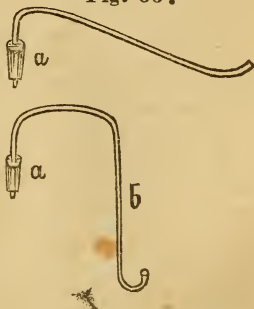
Exp. 2. Blow out a candle, leaving a red wick, and let it down into a jar of the gas, when it will be relighted with a slight explosion. This process may be repeated several times in rapid succession with the same jar of gas.

Fig. 67.

Exp. 3. If a bit of lighted phosphorus, in a capsule, be immersed in this gas, (Fig. 68,) it will burn with great energy and intense brilliancy. Substitute for the phosphorus a small ball formed of turnings of zinc, in which a small bit of phosphorus is enclosed, and set fire to the phosphorus, as before. The zinc will be inflamed, and burn with a beautiful white light. Metallic arsenic, moistened with spirits of turpentine, and various other metals, in fine powder, may be burned in a similar manner. Homberg's pyrophorus flashes spontaneously, like inflamed gunpowder.

Fig. 68.

Exp. 4. If iron wire, with a small lighted match attached to one end, be let down into a tubulated bell glass of oxygen, it will burn rapidly ; and if a watch-spring be used, (Fig. 69,) the bell glass will be filled with beautiful star-shaped scintillations.

Fig. 69.

Exp. 5. Or, let a stream of oxygen upon ignited charcoal, upon which is placed the end of a watch-spring ; it will burn with great brilliancy, and throw out immense numbers of the star-shaped scintillations.

Exp. 6. Put a small bit of phosphorus into a test-glass tube, and fill the tube with warm water, so as to melt the phosphorus. Direct, now, a stream of oxygen gas from the gas bag, or a bladder, to which a tube is attached, upon the phosphorus. A brilliant combustion will be produced under water.

All substances, by combustion in oxygen, increase in weight, in the proportion of about $\frac{1}{3}$ of a grain for every cubic foot of gas

Exp. 7. Fill the bowl of a tobacco-pipe with iron wire, coiled in a spiral form, and carefully weighed ; heat the bowl of the pipe red hot and then attach the pipe to a bladder filled with oxygen gas. By forcing a stream of the gas through the pipe, the iron will burn, and will be found, when weighed, to be heavier than before. When completely *oxidized*, 100 parts of iron will gain an addition of about 30.

Theory. In these experiments, the oxygen combines with the combustible substance, and forms a compound, which, being now oxidized, is incapable of further combustion. In case of the iron, an oxide is formed, the weight of which is exactly equal to that of the iron and the oxygen together. In case of the phosphorus, an acid is formed, which is absorbed by water, if present, or appears as a fine powder. The heat and light appear to arise from the condensation of the gas.*

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* In the case of combustion, the common opinion that the matter is destroyed, is erroneous. If the products are collected, they will be found equal in weight to the substances burned. It is a universal law that no particle of matter is annihilated.

The combination of oxygen with other substances is called *oxygenation*, and if the compound be an oxide, *oxidation.** Oxygen is slightly absorbed by several substances; 100 cubic inches of water absorb three or four cubic inches of the gas.

The relation of oxygen to animal life is very intimate and important. It is the only substance which will, for any length of time, support respiration. No animal can live without it. If confined in gases destitute of oxygen, death is the certain consequence. A few years since, 148 persons were confined in a prison called 'Black Hole,' in Calcutta, for a night, and, although there were two windows open in the west end of the building, only twenty-three were found alive in the morning.

Pure oxygen gas is generally destructive to animal life. The animal confined in it lives too fast; breathing becomes difficult, and if it remain for any time, death will ensue.

If the quantity be small, it will support life longer than the same quantity of common air. A bird will live five or six times as long in a few gallons of oxygen as in the same quantity of confined air. In order to its most salutary effects, it should be diluted with nitrogen, as we find it in the atmosphere. The Creator has, in this respect, adapted it to the support of life, as any thing which destroys the relation thus established, renders it deleterious to the animal constitution.

Uses. Oxygen has been used with good results in certain diseases, such as paralysis of the thorax, and general debility. Its effect upon the blood is to change it from dark red to a bright vermilion.

Sect. 2. Chlorine.

Symb. Cl.   Equiv. $\begin{cases} \text{by vol. } 100. \\ \text{``} \ \text{wgt. } 35.42. \end{cases}$ Sp. Gr. $\begin{cases} 2.47 \text{ Air} = 1. \\ 35.42 \text{ Hyd.} = 1. \end{cases}$

History. Chlorine was discovered by Scheele in 1774, and described under the name of *dephlogisticated marine*

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* It has been customary with many to call oxygen, and some other kindred substances, "*supporters of combustion*," while the substances with which they combine are called *combustibles*. But the supporters of combustion and the combustibles are alike essential to the combustion, and both are consumed in the process. Indeed, if the latter be in ex-

acid. The French chemists called it *oxygenized muriatic acid*, afterwards contracted to *oxy-muriatic acid.* This name implied a theory of its composition, suggested by Berthollet, that it was a compound of muriatic acid and oxygen. Gay Lussac and Thenard, in 1809, first suggested that it might be a simple substance. Sir H. Davy, after subjecting it to the most powerful decomposing agents, without in the least affecting its character, denied its compound nature, and maintained that, according to the true logic of chemistry, it should be regarded as a simple body. The views of Davy were for a long time combated. Drs. Murray and Thompson in England, and Berthollet, Gay Lussac, and Thenard in France, engaged with great warmth in the controversy. But the name *chlorine*, suggested by Davy from a Greek word[*] signifying *green*, not implying any theory as to its nature, came gradually into use, and the contest subsided. It is now universally regarded as a simple substance.

The introduction of chlorine into the class of simple bodies changed entirely the views of chemists relative to the theory of combustion. Previous to the discovery of oxygen, the Stahlian theory of combustion was generally adopted. According to this theory, combustion was the escape from combustibles of a certain principle called *phlogiston*, which pervaded most bodies. Soon after the discovery of oxygen, Lavoisier made an attack upon the phlogistic or Stahlian theory, and proved that combustion was produced by the union of *oxygen* with some combustible body. But when the properties of chlorine were investigated, and it was viewed as a simple substance, it was found to produce all the phenomena of combustion. Hence the theory of Lavoisier, that combustion was owing to the union of oxygen with a combustible, was extended; and the phenomena of combustion are not referred to any more specific cause than *intensity of chemical action.*

Natural History. Chlorine is one of the constituents of common salt, and therefore exists in the ocean in large quantity. Other compounds in the mineral kingdom are numerous.

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cess, a portion of it will remain, while the former will be entirely consumed. Generally, the supporter of combustion, as it is called, is a gas which envelops the combustible; but there is no scientific distinction
[*] *Χλωρος.*

Processes. 1. It may be obtained in the form of a gas, by the action of hydrochloric acid upon the binoxide of manganese. Take the latter, finely powdered, in a retort, and pour on twice its weight of concentrated hydrochloric acid. Collect the gas over the cistern in inverted bottles containing warm water, or, more conveniently, over a small cistern of warm water. The water should be raised to 70° or 80° Fahr., as cold water rapidly absorbs the gas. Apply a moderate heat; and, when the bottles are filled, they should be stopped with ground glass stoppers smeared with tallow.

Theory. In this process, the binoxide of manganese is decomposed into protoxide and oxygen. A part of the acid combines with the protoxide, and another is decomposed, its hydrogen uniting with the oxygen, and forming water, and the chlorine is set free. In other words, the MnO^2 and HCl are converted into $MnO + HCl$, and HO, which remain in the retort, and Cl, which comes over.

2. The cheapest mode of obtaining chlorine is the following : — Put eight ounces of common salt, with three ounces of pulverized peroxide of manganese, and five ounces of sulphuric acid, diluted with equal weights of water, into a Florence flask or retort, and apply heat as before. The MnO^2, $Na + Cl$, and $2SO^3$ are converted into $MnO + SO^3$, $NaO + SO^3$, and Cl.

Physical Properties. Chlorine gas is of a greenish-yellow color; has an astringent taste, and a disagreeable odor; is a non-conductor of electricity, and goes to the positive pole in the galvanic circuit. By the pressure of four atmospheres, or 60 lbs. to the square inch, it is condensed into a yellow liquid, and into a solid by the reduction of the temperature below 32°.* 100 cubic inches of this gas at 60° Fahr., and 30 barometer, weigh 76.5988 grains.

Chemical Properties. Chlorine unites with many substances with great energy, producing combustion; but its range of affinity is more limited than that of oxygen.

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* Mr. Faraday succeeded in condensing it in a bent tube, sealed hermetically. The pressure is produced by the accumulation of the gas evolved by the affinities between the materials in the short end of the tube. The experiment is attended with the hazard of breaking the tube, and should not be attempted, unless the hands and face are protected

Exp. 1. If a small lighted taper be immersed in a jar of the gas, the taper will burn for a short time with a small red flame, evolving large quantities of smoke, and then go out. The reason is, that the flame is mostly composed of carbon and hydrogen; the chlorine unites with the hydrogen, but not with the carbon; the latter is therefore precipitated in the form of smoke, and soon puts the light out.

Exp. 2. Into a tall glass vessel, filled with chlorine, throw finely-pulverized antimony; the metal will burn as it falls through the gas.

Exp. 3. A rag wet with oil of turpentine will instantly be inflamed, when immersed in the gas.

Exp. 4. Introduce phosphorus into a jar of chlorine; the phosphorus will soon ignite, and burn with a pale-green flame.

Exp. 5. Instead of the phosphorus, drop in a few drops of liquid ammonia; the ammonia will be decomposed; a flash and a white smoke will be instantly produced.

Several other metals and combustibles combine with chlorine with such energy as to exhibit the phenomena of combustion.

Chlorine is readily absorbed by water. Recently-boiled water, when cold, absorbs twice its bulk, but gives it off when heated.

Exp. Into a jar furnished with a well-fitted glass stopper, and filled with cold water, let up chlorine gas enough to displace half the water; stop it tight, and shake it, and most of the gas will be absorbed by the water. Open the jar under more cold water, which will rush into it to fill the vacuum occasioned by the absorption of the chlorine; then repeat the process once or twice, and the water will be saturated with chlorine, and possess most of its properties. If the water in this experiment be at the temperature of $32°$ Fahr., the chlorine will form a definite solid compound with it, in yellow crystals, which will be seen on the sides of the jar. The crystals are composed of 35.42 or 1 atom of chlorine, and 90 or 10 atoms of water.

Chlorine forms with hydrogen, if the vapor of water be present, a mixture which explodes violently when exposed to the direct rays of the sun, or even in a bright day without such exposure, the violet ray produces this effect.[*]

Exp. Mix, in a dark place, equal measures of hydrogen and chlorine. Expose the mixture to the light of day, and a slow action will take place. Cover the glass with a black cloth, to which a string is attached, and place the vessel in the direct rays of the sun. Remove the cloth by means of the string, taking care to have some object, as a door, between you and the receiver; as soon as the rays of light strike the mixture, a violent explosion will occur, and an acid compound will be formed.

Chlorine possesses remarkable bleaching properties.

Exp. 1. Immerse in the gas strips of calico, flowers, etc., and they will be bleached in a short time; or the saturated water may be used.

[*] Chlorine thus appears to exist in two states, called *Allotropism.* Prepared in the dark, it is indifferent to hydrogen, but light gives it a most powerful affinity for it.

Exp. 2. Pour some of the saturated water into a small quantity of ink, and the color will be discharged; or put into it some writing, which will become invisible, but will be restored if immersed in a solution of prussiate of potassa. Printers' ink will not be affected; and hence chlorine water may be used for removing blots from books.

Chlorine is not an acid; for it does not redden vegetable purples, and it combines directly in definite proportions with the metals, which is not true of any acid. It is not alkaline.

Chlorine is very destructive to animal life. A few bubbles of gas, in the atmosphere of a room, will bring on coughing. Half a gill undiluted in the lungs would cause death. If diluted largely with air, it irritates the throat and lungs, and if pure, destroys their texture. Pelletier is said to have fallen a victim to its effects. The antidote is *ammonia.*

Uses. 1. *The bleaching properties* of chlorine are turned to great account in the art of bleaching. Both the gas and the water saturated with it were employed as early as 1784–5 for bleaching cloths; but it proved injurious to the workmen. In 1789, the gas was condensed in a solution of pearlashes, and went by the name of "*Liquid javelle.*" But this substance soon gave place to Mr. Tennant's preparation of the chloride of lime, in 1798. Since that period, most of the bleaching of cotton and linen goods has been effected by this substance. The articles to be bleached are first steeped in hot water, boiled in a weak alkali, and then immersed in a solution of the chloride of lime. They are next taken out, and washed in water; sometimes diluted sulphuric acid is applied to increase their whiteness; and, finally, they are boiled in pearlashes and soap, to render them free from the odor of chlorine. Chloride of soda, magnesia, and potassa, are sometimes used, but they are more expensive.*

Theory. The theory of this process, perhaps, would be better understood after learning the composition of water; but it can be given

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* The advantages of this mode of bleaching, over the one formerly employed, are very great. By the old method, large fields in the vicinity of every manufactory were devoted to the purpose of spreading the cloths. These fields are now devoted to agriculture. It required also several weeks, and even months, to complete a process which may now be performed in as many days. In the former case, they were dependent upon the light of the sun and fair weather; in the latter, they are independent of the weather, and of the seasons of the year.

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here with a little explanation. Water is necessary to the bleaching effects of chlorine. It is composed of oxygen and hydrogen. The chlorine, having a strong affinity for the hydrogen, decomposes the water, and leaves the oxygen to combine with the coloring matter. The coloring matter may also contain hydrogen, and thus be directly decomposed by the chlorine. The coloring matter is rendered soluble by combination with oxygen, and is removed by the alkali. The process of bleaching by chlorine is but one out of many useful contributions of science to art.

2. Another use of chlorine arises from its *disinfecting agency*. It seizes hold of every species of animal and vegetable effluvia, and decomposes them. Hence its utility in contagious diseases. The chloride of lime is used for this purpose. Moisten the dry chloride with water, and place it in the infected apartment, which will soon be purified. It is thus very useful for dissecting-rooms, for cleaning drains, sewers, vessels, and even the atmosphere, when charged with miasma. Its use in medicine is mostly confined to the purification of apartments of the sick. The chloride of soda is, however, used in certain cases of inflammation, such as ulcers, mortification, and cutaneous diseases. It is also used as a wash for the teeth.* The compounds of chlorine with the metals are called *chlorides*.

Chlorine and Oxygen.

The compounds of chlorine and oxygen are held together by very feeble affinities, and *are never met with in nature.* They cannot be made to combine directly, unless they are in the *nascent* state, that is, at the instant of their formation.

Hypochlorous Acid. Symb. $Cl + O$ or ClO. Equiv. $35.42 + 8 = 43.42$. Sp. gr. 3.0212. It was discovered by H. Davy, in 1811, and called *euchlorine* from its being of a brighter color than chlorine.

Preparation Put two parts of the chlorate of potassa and one of hydrochloric acid into a retort, and apply the heat of water under 200° Fahr. Collect over mercury; or it may be more conveniently prepared for experiment by placing the materials in a flask,

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* So many and great are the advantages of cleanliness and pure air, that *chloride of lime* should be kept in every family, especially in cities and large towns; but an apartment in which it has been used should be thoroughly ventilated before it is again occupied, or weak lungs may be seriously injured.

ᴣ (Fig. 70,) connected by a glass tube, bent twice at right angles, with a tall receiver, *b*. Apply heat as before; the gas, being heavier than the air, will displace it, and fill the receiver.*

Theory. The hydrochloric acid and the chloric acid in the chlorate of potassa mutually decompose each other, and the results are water and the hypochlorous acid. 2 equiv. HCl, and one of $KO + ClO^5$, are converted into KO, 2 Aq, and $3ClO$.

Fig. 70.
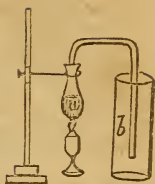
If the gas be collected over mercury, the chlorine unites with the mercury, and the acid remains in a pure state.

Properties. Greenish yellow color, more brilliant than chlorine; odor like burned sugar; absorbed rapidly by water, and gives to it an orange color; bleaches vegetable substances; gives vegetable blues a red tint before destroying them; does not unite with alkalies, and hence has been considered as a *protoxide of chlorine;* highly explosive, the heat of the hand being sufficient often to explode it. Many substances take fire in it spontaneously.

Exp. A rag dipped in spirits of turpentine will kindle in it with a slight explosion.
Exp. Phosphorus explodes in it spontaneously. Fifty measures of this gas, and eighty of hydrogen, form an explosive mixture.

Chlorous Acid. Symb. $Cl + 4O$, or ClO^4. Equiv. 35.42 $+ 32 = 67.42$. Sp. gr. 2.3374. Discovered by Davy, in 1815, and soon after by Count Stadion, of Vienna, and has been heretofore described as *peroxide of chlorine.*

Preparation. Make a paste of strong sulphuric acid and chlorate of potassa; put it into a retort, and apply the heat of warm water under 212° Fahr. Collect over mercury, or as in Fig. 64. For the purposes of experiment, take a wine or champagne glass, and put into it a few grains of chlorate of potassa; then pour on sulphuric acid; the gas will soon fill the glass. As the gas often explodes spontaneously, this is the safest mode of collecting it. The preceding compound may be formed in the same way.

Properties. Color, bright orange-green, richer than the preceding compound; aromatic odor; is absorbed rapidly by water, and gives it its peculiar color; bleaches powerfully, and is more explosive than hypochlorous acid.

Exp. Put a bit of phosphorus into a wine glass filled with the gas. It will instantly ignite, with a slight explosion.

Chloric Acid. Symb. $Cl + 5O$, or ClO^5. Equiv. 35.42 $+ 40 = 75.42$. It was first noticed by Mr. Chenevix, and obtained in a separate state by Gay Lussac.

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* To avoid the danger of explosion, a wine-glass had better be used, as directed for chlorous acid.

Preparation. To a dilute solution of chlorate of baryta add dilute sulphuric acid sufficient to combine with the baryta. Pure chloric acid will remain after the baryta subsides.

Theory. The sulphuric acid has a stronger affinity for baryta than the chloric acid with which it has combined, decomposes it, and leaves the chloric acid.

Properties. Sour to the taste; reddens vegetable blue colors, but possesses no bleaching properties, by which it is distinguished from the preceding compounds. It may be concentrated by gentle heat into an oily liquid of a yellow tint, emitting the odor of nitric acid. In this state, it sets fire to paper and dry organic matter, and converts alcohol into acetic acid.

Perchloric Acid. Symb. $Cl + 7O$ or ClO^7. Equiv. 35.42 $+ 56 = 91.42$. Sp. gr. 1.65, water $= 1$. It was first described by Count Stadion, of Vienna.

Process. It may be obtained by heating a mixture of 1 part of water, 3 of sulphuric acid, and 5 of perchlorate of potassa. At a temperature of 284°, white vapors arise in the receiver, which are soon condensed into a colorless liquid. By admixture with sulphuric acid, and distillation, it crystallizes in elongated prisms.

It is a very stable compound; absorbs moisture from the air powerfully, and boils at 392° Fahr. When thrown into water, it hisses like red-hot iron.

Sect. 3. Iodine.

Symb. I. Equiv. $\begin{cases} \text{by vol. 100.} \\ \text{“ wgt. 126.3.} \end{cases}$ Sp. Gr. $\begin{cases} 4.948 \text{ Water} = 1. \\ 8.702 \text{ Air} \quad = 1. \end{cases}$

History. Iodine was discovered in 1812, by a manufacturer of saltpetre — M. Courtois, of Paris. The substance in which it was first noticed, was the residual liquor after the preparation of soda from the ashes of sea-weeds. This dark-colored liquor possessed the peculiar property of powerfully corroding metallic vessels; on the application of sulphuric acid, he noticed that it threw down a dark-colored substance, which was converted into a violet-colored vapor on the application of heat. This attracted his attention, and he gave some of it to M. Clement, who, in 1813, described it as a new body. Gay Lussac and Davy soon after proved it to be a simple non-metallic substance, analogous to chlorine. The

name iodine is derived from a Greek word,* significant of the beautiful violet color of its vapor.

Natural History. Iodine exists in nature but in small quantities. It is found mostly in sea-weeds, in sponges, in the oyster and some other mollusca, in many salt and mineral springs, both in Europe and America. Vauquelin found it in combination with silver; marine animals and plants derive it from sea-water. Most of the iodine of commerce is obtained from the impure carbonate of soda, called *kelp*. This is nothing but the ashes of sea-weed, great quantities of which are prepared on the shores of Scotland. Iodine exists, in combination with sodium and potassium, in the liquor which is left after the carbonate of soda crystallizes.

Process. Iodine may be obtained by lixiviating the powdered kelp in cold water. Evaporate the lye till the carbonate of soda crystallizes; take the residual liquor, and evaporate it to dryness; pour on to this $\frac{1}{2}$ its weight of sulphuric acid; it may then be put into a common retort, to which is attached a globe receiver, and the retort heated; violet-colored fumes will soon arise, and be condensed in the receiver, in the form of opaque crystals, of a metallic lustre. These are to be washed in water, and dried on a filter of unglazed paper.

Physical Properties. Iodine, at the common temperature, is a soft, pliable, opaque solid, of a bluish-black color, and of a metallic lustre. It is generally found in small crystalline scales, resembling micaceous iron ore, or the scales from a smith's forge. But it may be made to crystallize in large rhomboidal plates, whose primary form is a rhombic octohedron, by saturating hot alcohol, or hydriodic acid, with it, and evaporating in the open air. It is very acrid to the taste, and has the odor of chlorine. Like O and Cl, it is a non-conductor of electricity, and goes to the positive pole in the galvanic circuit. It acts as a powerful poison to the animal system; fuses at 225°, and boils at 347° Fahr. If moisture be present, it volatilizes at the common temperature,

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* Ἰώδης.

and sublimes rapidly under 212°.   The rich violet vapor of iodine is remarkably dense, more than eight times as heavy as air.   One hundred cubic inches would weigh 269.8638 grs.

Exp. This vapor may be shown by putting a few grains of the iodine into a glass flask, and applying a gentle heat.

Chemical Properties.   Iodine has an extensive range of affinity.   Like chlorine, it destroys vegetable colors, though in a less degree, and, like oxygen and chlorine, it unites directly with the metals and with non-metallic combustibles with great energy.

Exp. Drop a bit of phosphorus upon a few grains of iodine, contained in a wine-glass, and it will be instantly inflamed.

The compounds thus formed resemble those of oxygen and chlorine.   It has little affinity for metallic oxides.   It is not inflammable, but a supporter of combustion.   The imponderables have no effect to change its character, and hence it is regarded as a simple body.   It is largely soluble in alcohol, and but sparingly soluble in water, requiring seven thousand times its weight of water for solution.

Tests. Starch is a very delicate *test* of iodine. It gives to the solution a deep blue color. A liquid containing $\frac{1}{450000}$ part of its weight of iodine, receives a blue tinge from a solution of starch.
Iodine is sometimes adulterated with black lead. This may be detected by dissolving it in alcohol, when the lead will not be held in solution.

Uses.   Used in medicine in the form of a hydriodate of potassa, for certain glandular diseases.   The goitre is a kind of wen growing from the neck, which is very common in Switzerland, in the treatment of which iodine has been of great service.

Its vapor is irritating to the lungs, and produces copious secretions in the eyes and nostrils.   The compounds of iodine with non-metallic combustibles are termed *iodurets;* its compounds with the metals, *iodides.*

Iodine forms with oxygen three, perhaps four compounds :

1. Oxide of iodine, $\}$ composition unknown.
2. Iodous acid,

3. Iodic acid, 1 eq. I, 126.3 + 5 eq. O, 40 = 166.3 eq. Symb. $I + 5O$ or IO^5.

4. Periodic acid, 1 eq. I, 126.3 + 7 eq. O, 56 = 182.3 Symb. $I + 7O$ or IO^7.

The first two compounds, oxide of iodine and iodous acid, are yet doubtful. The first is described by M. Sementini, of Naples, and the second by Mitscherlich. The oxide is a yellow solid, and the acid a similar liquid, but their properties have not been examined.

Iodic Acid was discovered by Davy and Gay Lussac about the same time. Davy, who first obtained it in a pure state, called it *oxiodine.*

Preparation. When iodine is brought in contact with the hypochlorous acid, two compounds are formed. The one is a volatile orange-colored substance, chloride of iodine, and the other a white solid, which is iodic acid. Apply heat to expel the chloride, and the iodic acid remains in a pure state. (See Turner, for other processes.) In this state, it is *anhydrous* iodic acid, that is, destitute of water.

Properties. It exists as a white, semi-transparent, crystalline solid, of a strong, astringent, sour taste, and no odor; fuses at 500° Fahr., and is resolved into oxygen and iodine.

It is soluble in water, with which it combines, and forms *hydrous iodic acid;* deliquesces in moist air; reddens vegetable blues, and finally destroys them. With charcoal, sulphur, sugar, and similar combustibles, it forms detonating mixtures.

Periodic Acid was discovered by Ammermuller and Magnus, and is obtained from the periodate of silver, by adding cold water. It has decided acid properties, and is analogous in composition to perchloric acid.

Chloriodic Acid was discovered by Davy and Gay Lussac. It may be formed by the direct union of chlorine and iodine. If the iodine is fully saturated with chlorine, it forms a yellow solid; but if the iodine is in excess, the color is a reddish orange. It is easily fused, and converted into vapor; deliquesces in the air; forms a colorless solution in water; very sour to the taste; reddens vegetable blues, and finally destroys them; does not unite with alkalies, and hence has been considered a chloride of iodine.

Souberaine has lately distinguished a compound of 3 eq. of chlorine and 1 of iodine.

Sect. 4. Bromine.

Symb. Br.   Equiv. $\begin{cases} \text{by vol. 100.} \\ \text{`` wgt. 78.4.} \end{cases}$ Sp. gr. $\begin{cases} 3. \\ 5.4017 \end{cases}$ $\begin{array}{l} \text{Water} = 1. \\ \text{Air} \quad = 1. \end{array}$

History. Bromine was discovered in 1826, by M. Balard, a young French chemist, of montpelier, who named it *muride,*

because obtained from the sea; but, in order to correspond with chlorine and iodine, it was called *bromine*, from a Greek word,* signifying *rank odor.*

Natural History. It exists in nature in very small quantities. It is found in sea-water and marine plants, combined with sodium and magnesium. It is found in every sea whose waters have been tested for it, and in many mineral and salt springs.

Process. It is obtained by passing a current of chlorine gas through the bittern of sea-water, and agitating the liquor with a portion of sulphuric ether. The ether dissolves the bromine, from which it receives a beautiful hyacinth-red tint, and, on standing, rises to the surface. Agitate this solution with caustic potassa, and the bromide of potassium and bromate of potassa will be formed. Evaporate the liquor, and the bromide of potassium will be left, from which the bromine may be distilled.

Physical Properties. Bromine, at common temperatures, is a deep reddish-brown colored liquor, of a disagreeable odor and caustic taste; and, like oxygen, chlorine, and iodine, is a non-conductor of electricity, and a negative electric; boils at 116.5° Fahr., and congeals at −4° Fahr. into a brittle solid. It *volatilizes* at the common temperature and pressure.

Exp. This may be shown by pouring a few drops of the liquid into a glass flask; it will soon be converted into a beautiful vapor, somewhat resembling the vapor of iodine, having a density of 5.54. 100 cubic inches at 60° Fahr. should weigh 167.5158 grains.

Chemical Properties. Its chemical properties are very analogous to those of chlorine and iodine. It readily bleaches litmus paper, and discharges the blue color of indigo. A lighted taper burns for a few moments in the vapor of bromine, with a flame green at its base and red at the top, and is then extinguished.

Bromine unites with great energy with many combustibles.

Exp. Pour a few drops of bromine into a strong wine-glass, and then pour upon it tin or antimony, in fine powder, from a glass fastened to

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* Βρωμος.

the end of a long rod; the metals will be instantly inflamed. If potassium be used, it will cause a violent explosion.

Bromine is soluble in water, alcohol, and ether; the latter is the best solvent. With water at 32° F., it forms a *hydrate*, in crystals of a fine red color. It gives to a solution of starch an orange color. Chlorine will displace it from all its combinations with hydrogen. It acts powerfully upon the animal system, and is very poisonous; a single drop upon the beak of a bird, destroys it instantly.

Bromic Acid (Symb. Br $+5$O or BrO^5. Equiv. $78.4 + 40 = 118.4$,) may be obtained by pouring sulphuric acid upon a dilute solution of bromate of baryta, and evaporating the solution.

Properties. It has scarcely any odor, acrid to the taste, though not corrosive. It first reddens litmus paper, and then destroys the color.

Chloride of Bromine may be formed by transmitting a current of chlorine through bromine, and condensing the disengaged vapors by a freezing mixture. It is a volatile liquid, of a reddish-yellow color, less brilliant than bromine. Its vapor is a deep yellow, taste very disagreeable, and odor penetrating, causing a discharge of tears from the eyes. Soluble in water which possesses bleaching properties.

Bromides of Iodine. Bromine and iodine unite and form two compounds.

The *proto-bromide* is a solid easily converted by heat into a reddish-brown vapor, which, on cooling, is condensed into crystals of the same color, and of a form resembling fern leaves. By the addition of bromine to these crystals, they are converted into a liquid resembling a strong solution of iodine and hydriodic acid; but the nature of it is not satisfactorily established.

Sect. 5. Fluorine

Symb. F. Equiv. 18.68, eq. vol. 100.

Fluorine is a name applied to a substance which has not as yet been obtained in a simple state. It is inferred from the nature of its compounds to be similar to oxygen, chlorine, bromine, and iodine. It has a strong affinity for hydrogen and the metals.

Natural History. It exists abundantly in nature, in *fluor-spar* combined with calcium, (*fluoride of calcium.*) Baudri-

mont is said to have obtained it, mixed with hydrofluoric and fluosilicic acid gases, by treating a mixture of fluoride of calcium and peroxide of manganese with strong sulphuric acid It appears to be a gaseous body, similar to chlorine.

SECT. 6. HYDROGEN.

Symb. H.   Equiv. $\begin{cases} \text{by vol. 100.} \\ \text{" wgt. 1.} \end{cases}$ Sp. gr. $\begin{cases} 0.0689 \text{ Air} = 1. \\ 1. \quad \text{Hyd} = 1. \end{cases}$

History. The name *hydrogen* is formed from two Greek words,* and means a generator of water. It was known for many centuries, but was first distinctly described by Mr. Cavendish, in 1776. Nine years previous, Dr. Black discovered carbonic acid gas, which was the first gas discovered, except the atmosphere, and hydrogen was the second.

Natural History. Hydrogen is a very abundant substance. It forms $\frac{1}{9}$ part by weight of water. Its chief repository, therefore, is the ocean; but it is widely disseminated through the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms. It is the basis of most liquids.

Processes. 1. Water is always employed for obtaining hydrogen. It is composed of oxygen and hydrogen, and the object is to decompose it by presenting some substance, with which the oxygen will combine, and leave the hydrogen to escape in the form of a gas. Iron is such a substance, and will decompose the water slowly at common temperatures; the oxygen combining with it, and forming the well-known substance called *iron rust.* But if the temperature of the iron be raised to 1000°

Fahr., and the vapor of water passed over it, it will decompose it more rapidly. For this purpose, clean iron turnings, or bright iron wire, are placed in the centre

Fig. 71.
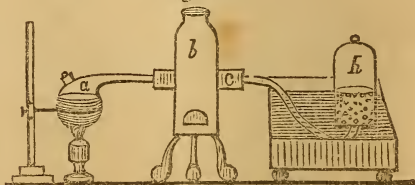
* Ὕδωρ and γεννάω.

of a gun-barrel, C, (Fig. 71,) open at both ends, and passed through a furnace, *b*. Into one end the vapor of water is made to pass from the retort *a*, and the other end is connected by a lead pipe with the pneumatic cistern. As the vapor passes over the iron, its oxygen combines with it, and its hydrogen passes over into the receiver *h*.[*]

2. It is more conveniently obtained by putting small pieces of zinc,[†] or iron turnings, into a glass or lead retort, and pouring on one part of sulphuric acid, diluted with four parts by weight of water, and collecting as above.

Theory. In this process, the oxygen of the water unites with the zinc, and forms oxide of zinc, which combines with the acid, while the hydrogen of the water escapes. This was formerly supposed to be a case of what was called *disposing affinity*, in which the acid disposed the oxygen and zinc to unite, that it might combine with the compound; for it has no affinity for them separately. This is sufficiently absurd. The process commences with zinc and water alone, without the aid of the acid, and is immediately arrested by the formation of a coat of oxide of zinc, which protects the zinc from the action of the water. The acid dissolves away this coating of oxide as fast as formed, and thus the action of the metal and the water is uninterrupted. *But the change is best explained by referring it to galvanic action.*

For every 9 grs. of water which are decomposed, 1 of hydrogen is set free. 8 grs. of oxygen unite with 28 of iron, forming 36 of the protoxide of iron. 1 oz. of iron yields 782 cubic inches, and 1 oz. of zinc 676 cubic inches, of hydrogen.

Impurities. The hydrogen, obtained in these processes, is not quite pure. That from the iron contains a volatile oil, produced by the hydrogen and the carbon in the iron; this may be removed by passing the gas through alcohol. When zinc is employed, (and it is generally

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[*] If the water and the iron are weighed before the experiment, and the iron and the hydrogen after it, the increase in the weight of iron and the weight of the hydrogen is just equal to that of the water. In this way the exact composition of water is determined analytically, and is found to be 8 parts of oxygen to 1 of hydrogen, and 1 vol. of the former to 2 of the latter.

[†] The zinc may be conveniently prepared by pouring a stream of the melted metal into cold water.

preferred,) the impurities result from the sulphur which it generally contains — hydrosulphuric acid is formed, and there are also traces of metallic zinc and carbureted hydrogen. These, except the last, may be removed by passing the hydrogen through pure potassa. When hydrogen of great purity is required, distilled zinc should be used.

Physical Properties. Hydrogen gas is colorless, tasteless, and, when perfectly pure, inodorous. But as it is generally obtained, it has a fetid odor, arising from the oily matter which it contains, and the hydrosulphuric acid. It is a powerful refractor of light, and has never been condensed to a liquid.

It is the lightest body in nature. It is sixteen times lighter than oxygen, 36 times lighter than chlorine, 200,000 times lighter than mercury, and 300 000 times lighter than platinum!

Exp. Fill a gas bag with hydrogen,* (Fig. 72;) connect it with a bubble-pipe, and inflate soap bubbles with the gas; they will ascend rapidly, being forced up by the superior weight of the air. Or, if a jar of hydrogen be removed from the cistern, and inverted in the open air, the gas will immediately escape.

Fig. 72.

In consequence of its extreme lightness, hydrogen is used for filling balloons.

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* The method of filling gas bags with gases from the pneumatic cistern, is represented in Fig. 73. *b* is the cistern containing water; the receiver has a stop-cock in its top, upon which another stop-cock, C, connected with the bag *a*, may be screwed. The receiver is filled with gas, and, the stop-cocks being both open, is pressed down into the well, and the water presses the gas into the bag. Then, by closing both stop-cocks, the bag may be removed from the receiver.

Fig. 73.
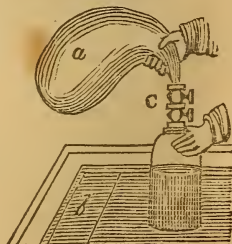
Aërostation. Roger Bacon first suggested the possibility of navigating the air by mechanical contrivances; but nothing of consequence was effected until 1782. The substance first employed to raise balloons was rarefied air, confined in a silk bag. Since the discovery of hydrogen, it has been universally employed for this purpose. Balloons are made of various shapes and capacities. The spherical form (Fig. 74) is the best, for the reason that a given quantity of canvass, or silk, made in the form of a sphere, will contain more than any other form, and hence offers the least resistance to the air. The substance employed for balloons is either varnished silk or gold-beaters' skin, and the size varies from 1 to 40 feet in diameter. They are generally covered with a net, *n*, connected by cords to a small boat, *c*, in which the aëronaut is stationed when he ascends. The hydrogen is prepared by putting iron turnings, sulphuric acid, and water, into several large casks, and connecting each with the balloon; the hydrogen is then rapidly evolved, and the balloon tied down until ready for use.

Fig. 74.

*Chemical Properties.** Hydrogen has a strong affinity for many substances, and the energy of its combinations frequently produces the phenomena of combustion.

Hydrogen is a combustible body, but not a supporter of combustion.

Exp. Plunge a lighted taper into an inverted jar of hydrogen; the gas will instantly be inflamed at the mouth of the jar, and burn with a blue light; but the taper, if wholly immersed in the gas, will be extinguished, and *relighted* again when the wick touches the flame.

Exp. Burn a jet of hydrogen. If the hydrogen be forced rapidly through a tube, *b*, (Fig. 75,) with a small orifice, ignited at the orifice, and cylinders of glass, as *a*, or other substances, put over the flame, musical tones will be produced. The tones will vary with the size and kind of tube.

Exp. Mix two measures of hydrogen with one of oxygen, and apply the flame of a candle to a small portion confined in an exploding tube, or gas pistol, *a*, (Fig. 76;) there will be a violent explosion. This effect is also produced by mixing one part of hydrogen with three of common air; but the explosions are much more violent when two vols. of hydrogen and one of oxygen are mixed, and ignited with the flame of a candle; or by the electric spark. Soap-bubbles may be formed and exploded as they rise. A large bladder, filled with the mixture, may also be exploded by piercing it with a sharp wire on the end of a long rod, having about it ignited tow.
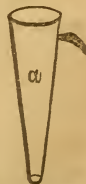
Exp. This mixture also explodes when suddenly compressed by the fire-syringe; this is owing to the development of its latent caloric, or because the particles are then brought within the sphere of each other's attraction; but the experiment is hazardous

Fig. 75.

Fig. 76.

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* Hydrogen, though it has never been condensed, possesses many of the properties of a *metal*. (See page 225.)

Theory. The report arises from the collapse of the air, and consequent expansion of the vapor of water, produced by the liberated caloric at the moment combination takes place. The musical tones arise from continued explosions, consequent upon the union of the hydrogen with the oxygen of the air.

Exp. When a stream of hydrogen gas is brought in contact with spongy platinum, it is immediately set on fire. This heat is supposed to be due to the condensation of the gas upon the surface of the plati‑ num, by which its latent caloric becomes sensible, and inflames the gas

This singular fact was discovered by Prof. Doebereiner, of Jena, in 1824. The sponge is prepared by dissolving plati‑ num in nitro-muriatic acid, and then precipitating it with ammonia. Rhodium and Iridium produce the same effect. This property has been applied to the construction of lamps, by which light can be easily and conveniently produced.

Under pressure, the combustion of hydrogen produces a very intense heat.

Exp. Burn a jet of hydrogen, and throw on iron filings ; they will be ignited, and produce beautiful scintillations. One pound of hydrogen in burning, will develop sufficient heat, according to Dalton, to melt 320 lbs. of ice.

Relations to Animals. An animal soon dies when confined in it. This is not owing to the noxious properties of the hydrogen, since an atmosphere of oxygen and hydrogen will support respiration for a considerable time ; but is due to the fact, that it excludes the oxygen, and thus suffocates. An atmosphere of oxygen and hydrogen has the singular property of producing *a most profound sleep.*

Hydrogen and Oxygen.

Protoxide of Hydrogen, or Water. 1 eq. H 1 $+$ 1 eq. O 8 $=$ 9 eq. Symb. H $+$ O or Aq. Sp. gr. $=$ 1

Process. Water is the sole product of the combustion of hydrogen gas in common air, or oxygen. This may be shown by burning a jet of hydrogen in a large globe receiver ; or, what will render the effect more striking, by burning a jet of 2 vols. of hydrogen to 1 of oxygen, with the compound blowpipe : the sides of the receiver will soon become hazy, from the deposition of water upon its interior surface ; and if the process be continued, large drops will form and run down the sides. This fact was first demonstrated by Mr. Caven‑

dish by burning the gases as above; and the weight of the water produced was exactly equal to that of the gases consumed.

Physical Properties. These are well known. It is transparent, colorless, inodorous, and tasteless; slightly compressible by a very strong pressure; elastic; converted into vapor by heat; boils at 212° F., and congeals at 32° F. It is the standard of weight, with which all solid and liquid bodies are compared; its specific gravity is therefore 1. One cubic inch weighs 252.458 grs. It is 815 times heavier than the atmosphere, which is the standard of weight for gaseous bodies.

Chemical Properties. 1. Water has the power of absorbing a great number of gaseous bodies. *It always contains air.*

Exp. This may be shown by placing it under the receiver of an air-pump, and exhausting the air, when bubbles of air will rise up through the water.

It is the air contained in water from which fishes obtain the oxygen necessary to purify their blood.

At the mean temperature and pressure, water will absorb, according to Henry and Dalton, of

Carbonic acid gas,	1 vol.	Carbonic oxide, $\frac{1}{64}$ vol.
Sulphureted hydrogen,	1 "	Carbureted hydrogen, $\frac{1}{27}$ "
Nitrous acid,	1 "	Nitrogen, $\frac{1}{64}$ "
Olefiant gas,	$\frac{1}{8}$ "	Hydrogen, " "
Oxygen,	$\frac{1}{27}$ "	

But if the gas be passed through the water under great pressure, a greater quantity will be absorbed. Carbonic acid gas, for example, is absorbed according to the pressure applied, to an unlimited extent.

2. *Water is one of the most powerful solvents in nature.* It enters into combination with various bodies; sometimes in indefinite proportions, as in solutions; at others in definite proportions, as in the acids, some of the metallic oxides, and many salts, in whose crystallization it is taken up, and in which it is therefore called the *water of crystallization.* The definite

compounds are called *hydrates.** The affinity of water for some substances is so strong, that it cannot be entirely separated from them without at the same time decomposing the substance.

Composition of Water. This has been accurately determined, both by analysis and synthesis. By synthesis, by burning 2 vols. of hydrogen and 1 of oxygen, the product is water. Also, by exploding 2 vols. of hydrogen and one of oxygen, in a strong glass tube, or *Eudiometer, a,* (Fig. 77,) over mercury, by the electric spark, there will be a perfect vacuum produced, and the mercury will rise, and fill the tube. Instead of inflaming the gases by the electric spark, spongy platinum may be employed to produce a combination of the oxygen and hydrogen.

Fig. 77.

Exp. Take three parts of spongy platinum, one of pipe-play, moistened with water, and a small quantity of hydrochlorate of ammonia, make it into a small ball, and ignite it, to separate the water and ammonia. Introduce it, while hot, into the mixture, and the oxygen and hydrogen will combine slowly, without explosion. If the gases are mixed in the proportions of 1 vol. of oxygen to 2 of hydrogen, they will wholly disappear, and water will be the only product.

Water may be decomposed by the galvanic battery, and the products are 2 vols. of hydrogen to 1 of oxygen. The same results are obtained by passing its vapor over red-hot iron, and collecting the products.

Compound Blowpipe. This apparatus was invented by Dr. Hare, in 1804. The best construction for experimental purposes is the following : A,B, (Fig. 78,) are two cylinders of wood or copper open at the top ; *c, a,* two similar cylinders open at the bottom, placed within the others, leaving spaces of $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch in width between them, and passing around cylinders of wood which nearly fill them. The spaces *i, e,* are filled with water, and the gases are conducted by a lead pipe into *c* and *d,* which are the gasometers. As they are filled, they are lifted up by the weights.† The tubes *h, o,* connect

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* The term *hydrous* is prefixed to substances containing water, and *anhydrous* to those deprived of it.

† A method for raising and depressing the gasometers has lately been devised, which answers a better purpose than weights. A bar or

Fig. 78.
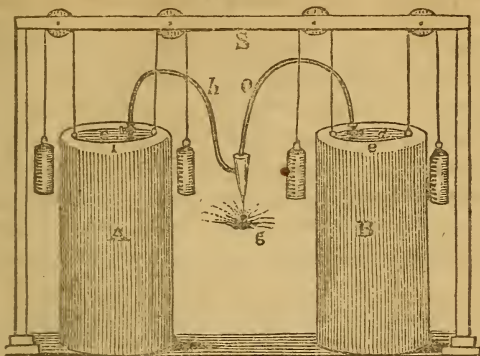
the gasometers with the blowpipe; the gases are let out by means of stop-cocks. *d*, being filled with oxygen, the gas passes in the tube *o* through the centre of the blowpipe; *c*, at the same time, being filled with hydrogen, the gas passes in the tube *h* to the side of the blowpipe, and issues at the point, so as to encircle the oxygen. By igniting the two gases, as they issue from the pipe, the heat is so intense as to melt the most refractory substances. It is only surpassed by that from a powerful galvanic battery. In burning the metals under the blowpipe, an opportunity is afforded for many interesting and beautiful experiments.*

Binoxide of Hydrogen. Symb. $H + 2O$ or HO^2. Equiv. $1 + 16 = 17$. Sp. gr. 1.452, water $= 1$. This singular compound was discovered by Thenard in 1818, and is sometimes called *oxygenized water*, and *peroxide of hydrogen*. It is formed by the action of hydrochloric acid upon the peroxide of barium.

Properties. The binoxide of hydrogen is a colorless, transparent liquid, without odor, caustic to the skin, giving it a white stain, and possesses powerful bleaching properties. When heated to 59° Fahr., it is decomposed so rapidly as to *cause explosion;* the same effect is also produced by throwing it on to several of the oxides of metals, such as the peroxide of silver, lead, mercury, gold, and some others.

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rod of iron is fastened by one end to the centre of the gasometers. The other end passes up through the cross-bar S; on one side of this bar are teeth, which fit into a cog-wheel, and the gasometers are raised and lowered by a crank attached to the wheel.

* In experiments with the blowpipe, the hydrogen should first be inflamed, and then the oxygen let out gradually, until the substance to be melted is fully ignited; the hydrogen may then be shut off, and the combustion kept up by oxygen alone.

Hydrogen and Chlorine — Hydrochloric Acid.

Symb. H + Cl.   Eq. by vol. 200, by wgt. 35.42 + 1 = 36.42.   Sp. gr. 18.21 Hyd. = 1, 1.2694 air = 1.

History.   This compound has been long known under the names of *spirit of salt,* and *muriatic acid;* but was discovered in its gaseous state by Dr. Priestley, in 1772.

Natural History.   It issues from the craters of volcanoes, and is found in the warm springs of Mexico; it exists in combination with ammonia, (the hydrochlorate of ammonia.)

Process.   1. It can be obtained in the gaseous state, by simply heating the common hydrous hydrochloric acid of commerce in a glass flask, or retort, and collecting the gas over mercury.

2. Put equal parts of common salt and sulphuric acid into a retort, and collect as above.

Theory.   Salt is a chloride of sodium, and sulphuric acid is composed of real acid and water; the oxygen of the water goes to the sodium, which unites with the acid, and forms soda, and the hydrogen of the water unites with the chlorine, forming hydrochloric acid.   Na + Cl, SO^3 and HO, are converted into NaO + SO^3 and HCl.

Instead of collecting the gas over mercury, it may be collected in large vials or bottles, in the following manner : —

Put the materials into a flask, *a,* (see Fig. 64,) and connec. the flask with a glass tube, bent twice at right angles, and extending to the bottom of a bottle or receiver, *b ;* as the gas is heavier than the atmosphere, it will expel it, and fill the bottle. By the application of ammonia to the mouth of the bottle, a white cloud will arise when the bottle is filled.*

Liquid Hydrochloric Acid.   This is obtained in the arts by passing the gas through water; for this purpose *Woulfe's apparatus* may be employed.

It consists of several bottles, *b, c, d, e,* (Fig. 79.)   The first bottle is connected, by a lead tube, with a glass retort, *a,* which contains the materials; *b* is one third filled with water; the tube from *b* descends to the bottom of *c,* and the gas passes up through the water.   As soon as the water is saturated,

* All gases that are heavier than the atmosphere, may be collected in this way, and those that are lighter may be collected by inverting the bottle, and allowing the gas to press the air down, instead of lifting it up.

Fig. 79.
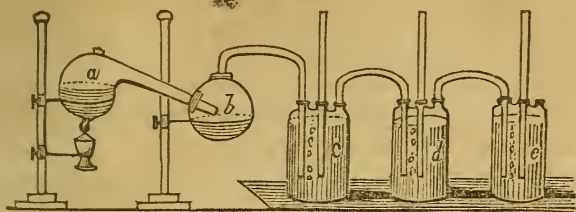
.he gas passes through the tube to the bottom of *d*, and ascends again through the water; thence to *e*, in a similar manner. Through the centre of each bottle there is a safety tube, extending nearly to the bottom, to prevent the danger that might arise from a too sudden evolution of gas. The gas presses upon the surface of the water, and forces it up the centre tubes, which prevents it from bursting the bottles. The acid in the first bottle is thrown away; the rest is the acid of commerce. The bottles should be surrounded with ice, to aid the absorption . water will thus absorb 480 times its volume, and the solution has a density of 1.2109.

Physical Properties. Hydrochloric acid gas is colorless, of a pungent odor, and acid taste, a little heavier than the air; sp. gr. 1.269; under a pressure of forty atmospheres, or 600 lbs. on the square inch, it is condensed into a liquid.

Chemical Properties. It possesses decidedly acid properties, changes the vegetable infusions red, and combines with alkalies, and forms salts. It supports combustion feebly, and extinguishes a lighted taper, the flame of which assumes a greenish hue before it goes out. Water absorbs it rapidly.

Exp. A drop or two of cold water, introduced into a flask of the acid, will absorb it readily; and if a jar of it be inverted over water, the water will rush in with nearly the same violence as into a vacuum.

Exp. So strong is its affinity for water, that a piece of ice introduced into a jar of it over mercury, will be dissolved almost as soon as if thrown into a furnace.

It is readily decomposed by voltaic electricity, the hydrogen appearing at the negative and the chlorine at the positive pole. A discharge of ordinary electricity will decompose it, but, according to Henry, the second shock causes it to combine again. It is decomposed by those substances which

yield oxygen readily, such as the peroxide of manganese, cobalt, and lead; the oxygen combines with the hydrogen of the acid, and sets the chlorine at liberty.

It is nearly as *suffocating*, when taken into the lungs, as chlorine, causes spasms of the glottis, and combines with the saliva, or water, and forms the liquid acid.

Constitution. It was formerly supposed to be a simple body, combining with oxygen to form oxymuriatic acid, now found to be chlorine. But its composition may be determined synthetically, by mixing equal portions of hydrogen and chlorine in a glass tube, and exposing them to the solar rays, when they instantly combine, with explosion, and hydrochloric acid is the only product; or their union may be effected by passing an electric spark through the mixture contained in the eudiometer.* If the gases are mixed, they will combine slowly in diffuse daylight. The light from the point, of charcoal, at the poles of a galvanic battery, has the same effect as the sun's rays.

Uses. Hydrochloric acid is one of the three great acids used in the arts; it is used for preparing the chloride of tin for dyers, as a re-agent in various chemical processes, and in medicine as a tonic.

Impurities. The acid of commerce is not quite pure, containing the chloride of iron, and chlorine. This gives the liquid a yellow color; but, when perfectly pure, it is limpid.

Hydriodic Acid. Symb. H + I. Eq. 126.3 + 1 = 127.3. Sp. gr. 4.3854, air = 1. Discovered by Gay Lussac, of Paris.

Preparation. It may be obtained by passing iodine vapor and hydrogen gas through a red-hot porcelain tube. But a more convenient process, by which it may be obtained for the purposes of experiment, is to put a small bit of phosphorus into a glass tube, filled with water, and drop upon it a few grains of iodine.

Theory. The iodine unites with the phosphorus, forming the periodide of phosphorus, and then the water and the periodide mutually decompose each other. The oxygen of

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* The fact being established that hydrochloric acid is composed of hydrogen and chlorine, the old theory that oxygen was the only acidifying principle is proved false; there are many acids of hydrogen which have no oxygen in them. They are called *hydracids.*

the water unites with the phosphorus, and the hydrogen with the iodine, giving rise to phosphoric and hydriodic acids; the latter passes over in the form of a colorless gas, and may be collected in a receiver of common air; it may be passed through water, and absorbed by it. It cannot be collected over mercury, because it acts upon it.

Properties. Hydriodic acid is a colorless, transparent gas, very sour to the taste, and gives an odor like hydrochloric acid; reddens vegetable blues without destroying them, and, when mixed with air, produces dense white fumes; has a strong affinity for water; is decomposed by several of the metals, such as potassium, sodium, zinc, iron, and mercury, and even when exposed to the air.

Uses. This acid may be employed to form pigments.

Exp. Take some of the salts of lead (acetate or nitrate of lead) in solution, and pour on hydriodic acid; it will decompose the salt, and form paints of a yellow color.

Tests. The most delicate test of this acid is *bichloride* of platinum, a single drop of which, in solution, will give to a liquid containing the acid, a reddish-brown color, and a dark precipitate will subside.

Exp. Starch is also a sure test. A few drops of sulphuric acid will give to a solution of the acid, mixed with a cold solution of starch, a blue color.

Hydrobromic Acid. Symb. Br + H or BrH. Eq. 78.4 + 1 = 79.4. Sp. gr. 2.7353. Discovered by M. Balard, and may be obtained by immersing a red-hot iron into a mixture of the vapor of bromine and hydrogen; the combination takes place slowly, without explosion; or it may be formed, for experimental purposes, by a process similar to that for obtaining hydriodic acid, using bromine instead of iodine.

Properties. It is colorless, with an acid taste and pungent odor; irritates the glottis, so as to excite coughing; exposed to moist air, it yields white dense vapors, and is rapidly absorbed by water; decomposed by chlorine instantly; nitric acid also effects its decomposition.

Hydrofluoric Acid. Symb. F + H or FH. Eq. 18.68 + 1 = 19 68. Sp. gr. 1.0609.

History. First procured in a pure state in 1810, by Gay Lussac and Thenard.

Process. It is formed by the action of sulphuric acid on fluor-spar, (*fluoride of calcium*) This mineral is pulverized,

put into a lead or silver retort, with twice its weight of sul phuric acid, and heat applied. The acid will distil over, and must be collected in a vessel of the same material, surrounded with ice, to condense the acid.

Theory. The hydrogen of the water in the sulphuric acid combines with the fluorine in the mineral, and the oxygen with the calcium; the sulphuric acid unites with the oxide of calcium : the products are *hydrofluoric acid*, and *sulphate of the protoxide of calcium.* Ca, F, SO³ and HO, are converted into CaO + SO³ and FH.

Properties. At 32° F. it is a colorless liquid, and remains in that state at 59°, if preserved in well-stopped bottles ; but, exposed to the air, it assumes the gaseous form, unites with the water of the atmosphere, producing white fumes. Its affinity for water is greater than strong sulphuric acid. Its vapor is much more pungent than chlorine or any of the irritating gases; *the most destructive to animal matter* of any known substance, a single drop of the concentrated acid causing deep and almost incurable ulcers. It is distinguished for the remarkable property of acting on glass. It readily dissolves silex, and an acid is produced called the *fluo-silicic acid*; and hence it cannot be preserved in glass vessels.

Uses. It is used for etching on glass.

Exp. For this purpose, prepare some resin or beeswax, and form a coat over the glass; then, with a pointed instrument, remove the coating where you wish the glass to be etched; pour on the acid, and in a few minutes the etching is completed. Then, by washing the glass in water, and removing the coating, the figures will appear. The liquor in the retort will answer for this experiment, especially if used within a day or two after the acid and the fluor-spar are mixed.

SECT. 7. NITROGEN.

Symb. N. Equiv. $\begin{cases} \text{by vol. 100.} \\ \text{" wgt. 14.15.} \end{cases}$ Sp. gr. $\begin{cases} 0.9727 \text{ Air } = 1. \\ 14.15 \text{ Hyd. } = 1. \end{cases}$

History. Nitrogen was discovered by Dr. Rutherford, of Edinburgh, in 1772. Three years after, Lavoisier discovered that it was a constituent of the atmosphere. Scheele also made the same discovery. It was called by Lavoisier *azote* (from two Greek words,*) because it deprived animals of life; but this is not the only gas which is *azotic*. Its present name, *nitrogen*, is derived from nitre, (nitrate of potassa.)

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* *A* and ζωή.

Natural History. Nitrogen exists in all animals, in fun gous plants, and constitutes $\frac{4}{5}$ of the atmosphere; also in some hot springs in Scotland, and in the Alps. It is also evolved from certain springs in the state of New York.

Process. It may be obtained from the atmosphere, either by burning out the oxygen of a confined portion of air with some combustible, or by abstracting the oxygen in a more gradual way, by its affinity for some of the simple substances.

Exp. 1. Put a small piece of phosphorus in a cup which will float on water, (Fig. 80,) and invert over it a receiver of common air. On igniting the phosphorus, it will unite with the oxygen, and burn until all the oxygen is consumed, forming white fumes — the pyrophosphoric acid. This acid, in a short time, will be absorbed by the water, which will rise and fill the jar $\frac{1}{5}$ full. This is sufficiently pure for common experiments, but contains vapor of phosphorus and carbonic acid, which may be removed by passing the gas through pure potassa.

Fig. 80.

Exp. 2. Make a paste of flowers of sulphur and iron filings, and invert over it a receiver; the oxygen will combine slowly with the iron, and leave the nitrogen. A stick of phosphorus will produce the same effect. If the proto-sulphate of iron, charged with the binoxide of nitrogen, be substituted for the paste, the process is more rapid.

Exp. 3. It may also be obtained by pouring nitric acid on fresh muscle, and subjecting it to a moderate heat.

Theory. On account of the strong affinity of oxygen for these substances, it leaves the nitrogen, and combines with them.

Physical Properties. Nitrogen is colorless, tasteless, inodorous, not condensed into a solid by pressure or cold. 100 cubic inches weigh 30.1650 grains.

Chemical Properties. Water, recently boiled, absorbs $1\frac{1}{2}$ volumes of the gas.

Nitrogen will not support combustion.

Exp. Put a lighted candle into a jar of it, and it will be immediately extinguished; hence *it does not support*

Respiration. No animal can live in it, not because of the active properties of the gas, but because it excludes the oxygen. It kills by its negative properties, for which it seems alone to be distinguished. The effect is like that of drowning.

Nature of Nitrogen. Nitrogen has been supposed by

some, among whom is Berzelius, to be a body composed of oxygen and an unknown base. But this *base* has never been exhibited in a separate state; and, until that is done, it must be regarded as a simple substance.

Although pure nitrogen is the most inert of substances, some of its compounds are among the most active and useful

Nitrogen and Oxygen.

Common Air. Symb. $2N + O$. Equiv. $28.30 + 8 = 36.30$, eq. vol. $4N + O$. Sp. gr. $= 1$　The earth is surrounded by a gaseous fluid or atmosphere, consisting chiefly of common air, extending about forty-five miles from its surface, and revolving with it around the sun.

Physical Properties. The atmosphere is a permanent, elastic fluid, transparent, inodorous, and tasteless.

The air is very compressible and elastic

Exp. The *compressibility* of the air may be shown by the fire-syringe, by which it may be compressed into a very small compass. If 100 measures of confined air, under pressure of 1 lb., be subjected to double the pressure, or 2 lbs., it will be diminished to 50 measures; double this pressure, or 4 lbs., will compress it to 25 measures. On the other hand, if the pressure be diminished, its elasticity will restore it to its former state. Then, if $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. be applied to the 100 measures, it will expand to 200 measures. Halve this, or $\frac{1}{4}$ of a pound, and the volume will be double, or 400 measures. The same is true of all other gaseous bodies, while they retain their gaseous state. Hence the following law, that

The volume of air and of other gaseous fluids is inversely as the pressure applied.

Exp. The *elasticity* of the air may be further shown by putting a bladder, half filled with air, under the receiver of an air-pump, and exhausting the air from the receiver; the external pressure being thus taken off, the air within the bladder will expand, fill the bladder, and even burst it. This force is often so great, as to burst the strongest vessels. Hence the danger of forcing too much air into the ball of an air-gun, or carbonic acid into a soda fountain.

Winds. In consequence of the great elasticity and compressibility of the air, it gives rise to the phenomena of winds. It is subject to the laws of elastic fluids in general; as one portion therefore becomes expanded by heat, the colder or more dense portions rush rapidly into its place, and force it to ascend. From the same properties, also, vibrations are easily produced in it, which give rise to the sensation of sound, musical tones, etc.

Pressure of the Air. That the air had weight, was first noticed by Galileo, in 1640. Torricelli, his pupil, carried out

his suggestions, and in 1643 invented the *barometer,** by which variations of pressure could be accurately measured. The exact weight of the atmosphere is of great importance in physical and chemical researches, and has been accurately determined by Dr. Prout. At the level of the sea, its pressure is 15 lbs. on every square inch of surface.

Exp. This pressure may be illustrated by exhausting the air from the receiver of an air-pump; the pressure on the external surface of the receiver will fix it immovably to the plate.

The body of a man sustains constantly a pressure of about 14 tons!

As we ascend above the level of the sea, the mercury sinks in the barometer, because the column of air is shorter; hence the height of mountains may be measured in a very expeditious manner. Aëronauts in this manner determine the height to which they ascend.†

Extent of the Atmosphere. The height of the atmosphere, as estimated by the phenomena of refraction, is found to be about forty-five miles. Above that height, no refraction takes place in the rays of light. Dr. Wollaston estimates its extent, by the law of the expansion of gases, at forty miles; that is, the *weight* of the particles of air (gravity) will overcome their elasticity at that height.

· *Composition of the Atmosphere.* · Chemists are not agreed whether the atmosphere is a chemical or a mechanical compound. The proportions 20 or 21 parts of oxygen and 79 or 80 of nitrogen in 100 never vary, from whatever parts of the earth, or regions of the atmosphere, it may be taken. Gay Lussac brought air from an altitude of 21,735 feet, and its composition did not vary from that on the surface of the earth.

Exp. That the atmosphere is composed of 4 parts of nitrogen and 1 of oxygen, by measure, may be shown by a graduated glass tube of

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* Torricelli first filled a glass tube three feet in length with mercury, and, on inverting it in a vessel of the same liquid, found that the mercury fell about six inches; hence the atmosphere sustained a column of mercury of about thirty inches. The space abandoned by the mercury is called the *Torricellian vacuum,* and is the most perfect that can be formed.

† There seems to be a constant relation between the pressure of the atmosphere and the weather. During a storm, the mercury in the barometer sinks, indicating that the atmosphere is lighter, and rises again when fair weather returns, proving its greater weight. Invalids often complain of the oppressive weight of air in foul weather; the fact, as we have seen, is the reverse; they feel a difficulty in respiration, because the air is too light. The same difficulty is felt by aëronauts, and those who ascend high mountains.

known capacity, and bent as in Fig. 81.   Put a bit of
phosphorus into the bent end, and place the open
end in a vessel of water, keeping the finger over the
end to prevent the air from escaping.   Bring now
near the phosphorus a red-hot iron; the phospho-
-us will be inflamed, and will burn out the oxygen
of the air; phosphoric acid will be formed, and
absorbed by the water; the latter will rise, and fill
the tube 1-5th full; the remaining 4-5ths is nitro-
gen.

Fig. 81.
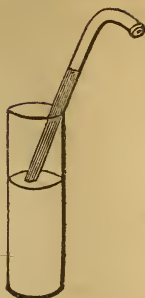
This uniformity in the composition of the
atmosphere has been regarded as a decisive
proof of its chemical constitution.   But it has
been shown by Dalton, that it is the results of
a *mechanical*, rather than of a chemical law.
This law may be illustrated in the following manner : —

Exp. Take two strong glass tubes closed at one end, and fill the
one with oxygen and the other with hydrogen gas.   Close the tube con
taining oxygen with a cork, through the centre of which is inserted a
small glass tube.   Having inverted the tube containing the oxygen
place upon it that containing the hydrogen, so that one cork shall close
both tubes; let them remain in an upright position.   As the oxygen in
the lower vessel is sixteen times as heavy as the hydrogen in the upper,
we should expect that each would maintain its position; but the fact
is otherwise.   They *mutually intermingle*, as is proved by their forming
explosive mixtures in both tubes.

Similar experiments have been made upon a great number
of gases, and it is uniformly found that, after a little time, they
will distribute themselves equally through the space occupied
by both, whatever be their difference of density; hence it was
inferred by Dalton *that different gases are vacuums in respect
to each other;* that is, that one gas does not prevent the en-
trance of another into the space which it occupies, any more
than the vacuum of an air-pump, although it will flow
more slowly in the former than in the latter case.   All gases
and vapors follow the same law; hence there are as many at-
mospheres around the earth as there are gases upon its
surface, each occupying the same space which it would oc-
cupy if it were entirely alone.

This tendency to diffusion renders it difficult to confine
gases in bladders, or even over water in the pneumatic cistern

Exp. By placing hydrogen gas in a glass tube, one end of which is
stopped by plaster of Paris, over water, the hydrogen will force itself
out through this plaster so rapidly as to prevent the entrance of the
air, and the water will rise in the tube; but, as the water rises, the at-
mospheric pressure is such as to force the air into the tube, and the
wa er will fall.   By igniting the gas, it will explode; which shows that
these has been a mingling of the air with the hydrogen.

Impurities. The air usually contains other gases; carbonic acid and watery vapor are the most abundant. The quantity of water is determined by the hygrometer. It never amounts to more than one per cent. Carbonic acid rarely exceeds $\frac{1}{1000}$. Traces of hydrochloric acid are frequently found in the vicinity of the ocean, and of nitric acid in rain water, produced by lightning.

The air near cities often contains other substances, organic matter, sulphuric acid, and ammonia. The odoriferous particles of flowers, and other vegetable and mineral substances, are often detected in it.

It was formerly supposed, that the healthy state of the air depended upon the proportion of oxygen in it; hence the origin of the term *eudiometry,* which was applied to the process of analyzing the air; but, since the oxygen of the air is found to be constant, it is now applied also to the modes of ascertaining its purity. This is effected either by exploding a given portion of air with hydrogen in the *eudiometer,* (see page 152,) or by placing in a portion of confined air some substance to abstract the oxygen.

Uses of the Air. The utility of the atmosphere in the economy of nature cannot be too highly rated. It is absolutely essential to animal and vegetable life. Its constitution is one of the most beautiful illustrations of the wisdom and goodness of the Creator.

Protoxide of Nitrogen. Symb. NO. Equiv. $14.15 + 8 = 22.15.$ Sp. gr. 1.5239. 100 cubic inches weigh 47.2586 grains

History. Discovered by Priestley, 1772, and named by him *dephlogisticated nitrous air.* Davy called it *nitrous oxide.*

Process. This gas may be formed by decomposing nitrate of ammonia.

Exp. Put a few grains of this salt into a glass retort, and apply heat. At a temperature of between 400° and 500° Fahr. it liquefies, bubbles of gas begin to appear, and in a short time brisk effervescence. The gas may then be collected in the ordinary way over warm water, and suffered to remain a short time, until the water absorbs the nitrous acid which is often formed with it.

Theory. The changes which take place may be thus explained: the $NH^3 + NO^5,$ containing 2N, 5O, and 3H, are converted into 3HO, or water, and 2NO.

Properties. The protoxide of nitrogen is a colorless, inodorous gas, of a sweetish taste, and does not affect the vegetable blues; it is not, therefore, an acid or an alkali.

It supports combustion almost as powerfully as oxygen gas.

Exp. A candle is relighted in the same manner as in oxygen gas. Iron wire, charcoal, and most combustibles, burn in it. Phosphorus burns with nearly the same brilliancy as in oxygen gas.

Exp. Mix equal volumes of the protoxide and hydrogen gas, and it will form an explosive mixture, which may be exploded in the gas pistol by flame, or the electric spark ; but generally it requires the temperature of the substance to be raised to a higher degree than oxygen, because the heat is necessary to decompose the gas, so that its oxygen may unite with the combustible, and its nitrogen escape into the air.

Respiration of this Gas. When respired, it is a *powerful stimulant.* Its effects upon the animal system were first investigated by Sir H. Davy in 1799. In his experiments on the effects of respiring the various gases, he breathed nine quarts of this gas for three minutes, and twelve quarts for four. *No quantity would support respiration for a longer period.* The effects are pleasurable -in the highest degree, resembling the first stages of intoxication. The effect varies very much with temperament, but *generally* gives an unusual propensity to *muscular action,* a rapid flow of vivid ideas, and the *more prominent* traits of character are made *still more prominent.*

This excitement continues but for a few minutes, and generally is not succeeded by the languor and exhaustion consequent upon other stimulants.* Its effects, however, upon some temperaments, have proved decidedly injurious. It is hoped that so powerful a stimulant will be applied to some good use in medicine.

Binoxide of Nitrogen. Symb. $N + 2O$, NO^2 or $\dot{N}$. Eq. $14.15 + 16 = 30.15$. Sp. gr. 1.0375.

History. Discovered by Dr. Hales; but its properties were first investigated by Dr. Priestley, in 1772, who gave it the name of *nitrous air.* *Nitric oxide* and *nitrous gas* have also been applied to it.

Process. It may be formed by the action of dilute nitric acid (2 parts of water to 1 of acid) upon copper filings, or

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* It may be administered from a silk or India-rubber bag, furnished with a stop-cock, by repeatedly breathing it from the bag and back again, as long as it will support easy respiration.

mercury. Place the materials in a retort, and collect over water.

Theory. In this process, the nitric acid is decomposed. 3 equiv. of oxygen unite with the copper, forming the peroxide of copper, and 2 equiv. of oxygen combine with the nitrogen, and form the binoxide; the peroxide of copper is then united to some undecomposed nitric acid, and forms the nitrate of copper. Cu and $2NO^5$ are converted into $CuO^3 + NO^5$ and NO^2.

Properties. This gas is colorless, and slightly absorbed by water. It is perfectly *irrespirable,* exciting spasms in the glottis, which immediately closes to prevent its passage into the lungs. It extinguishes most burning bodies, although phosphorus and charcoal, introduced in a state of vivid combustion, burn with increased brilliancy, owing, doubtless, to its decomposition, which is easily effected by heat or electricity.

Binoxide of nitrogen has a strong affinity for oxygen.

Exp. Pass oxygen into a jar of it, and red fumes will be formed. This is a test of the gas. Atmospheric air will produce a similar effect;* hence it may be used to separate the oxygen from the nitrogen of the air.

Hyponitrous Acid. Symb. $N + 3O$, NO^3 or $\ddot{N}$. Equiv. $14.15 + 24 = 38.15$. This compound was discovered by Gay Lussac, and is said to be formed when 400 measures of binoxide of nitrogen are mixed with 100 of oxygen, both quite dry. When the resulting orange fumes are exposed to a cold of zero, Fahr., they are condensed into a liquid.

Properties. The *anhydrous* acid is colorless at zero, and green at common temperatures. It is so volatile, that, in open vessels, the green fluid wholly and rapidly passes off in the form of an orange-colored vapor, density of 1.72. In the manufacture of sulphuric acid, it exerts an important agency, by forming with water and sulphuric acid a crystalline compound, the production of which seems essential to the process.

Nitrous Acid. Symb. $N + 4O$, NO^4 or $\dddot{N}$. Eq. $14.15 + 32 = 46.15$.

History. Known for some time under the name of *fuming nitrous acid.* Its true nature has been ascertained by Davy, Gay Lussac, and Dulong.

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* Owing to this property, an attempt has been made to introduce it into *eudiometry;* but the results are not perfectly satisfactory.

Processes. 1. It is formed by adding oxygen gas in excess to the binoxide of nitrogen over mercury, and putting a strong solution of potassa into the receiver before mixing the gases, red fumes appear, and combine with the potassa.

2. It may be obtained in the form of a gas, by exhausting a glass globe of air, and introducing 100 volumes of oxygen to 200 volumes of the binoxide of nitrogen.*

3. The best mode is to expose, in an earthen retort, nitrate of lead, carefully dried, to a red heat, and collect the gas in a tube surrounded by ice. For the purposes of experiment, it may be formed by introducing oxygen, or common air, into a jar of the binoxide, over water; deep orange-red colored fumes appear, which are rapidly absorbed by the water; or by simply taking up a jar of the binoxide, and exposing it to the air. In each case, nitrous acid is formed, and may be known by its red fumes.

Properties. The vapor is of an orange-red color, rapidly absorbed by water. At common temperatures, the liquid is orange-red; below 32°, yellow, and nearly colorless at zero, Fahr.; density, 1.451; anhydrous, exceedingly volatile, pungent to the taste, and powerfully corrosive, giving a yellow stain to the skin.

It has decided acid properties,† both in the gaseous and liquid states.

Exp. Into a long glass tube, filled partly with vegetable infusion, and partly with the binoxide, introduce a few bubbles of oxygen; the infusion will immediately turn red, owing to the formation of nitrous acid, and the absorption of it by the infusion.

Respiration of Nitrous Acid. It is highly suffocating and poisonous, exciting great irritation and spasms in the glottis, even when moderately diluted with air.

Nitric Acid. Symb. $N + 5O$, NO^5 or $\overset{\cdots}{N}$. Equiv. 14.15 $+ 40 = 54.15$.

History. This acid was first discovered in distilling a mixture of *nitrate of potassa and clay,* by Raymond Lully,

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* If collected over water, it is converted into nitric acid; if over mercury, it is decomposed, and the mercury is oxidized.
† Some chemists believe it to be a compound of nitric and hyponitrous acids, from the fact that, when it is added to an alkaline solution, the products are a *nitrate* and a *hyponitrite* of the base.

a chemist of the Island of Majorca. Basil Valentine, in the 15th century, describes a process of obtaining it, and calls it the *water of nitre.* Its composition, however, was first determined by Mr. Cavendish, in 1785, by exposing oxygen and nitrogen in a glass tube over mercury, in which some water was present, to the action of the electric battery. It has since been examined by Davy, Dalton, Henry, Berzelius, and Gay Lussac.

Process. Gay Lussac obtained nitric acid by adding the binoxide of nitrogen slowly to an excess of oxygen over water. By this process, it is found to be composed of 250 volumes of oxygen to 100 of nitrogen. But the usual process for obtaining it, is to heat, in a large tubulated retort, *a*, (Fig. 82,) a mixture of 3 parts of nitre (nitrate of potassa) and 2 of sulphuric acid,* and condensing the gas in the globe receiver *b*, by dropping

Fig. 82.

ice-cold water from the tunnel *t* upon the tube of the retort, or by surrounding the receiver *b* with ice. The liquid, as it is condensed, passes into the bottle C.
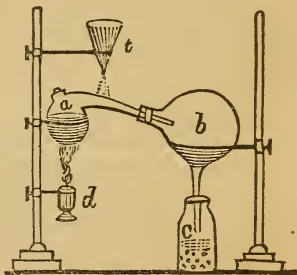
Impurities. The acid of commerce is not perfectly pure; three acids are generated in the process — the nitrous, hyponitrous, and nitric. It also contains hydrochloric and sulphuric acids. Nitrous acid gives it a color varying from yellow to orange and green, and may be expelled by heat; the hydrochloric may be detected and separated by a few drops of the nitrate of silver, with which it will combine and form a white solid. The sulphuric acid is separated by re-distilling it with nitre.

Properties. Nitric acid, in its most concentrated state, is a white or limpid liquid, specific gravity of 1.55, and of a peculiarly nauseous odor. It boils at 248°, and freezes at –50° Fahr.

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* The London College of Physicians employ equal weights of nitrate of potassa and sulphuric acid. The Edinburgh and Dublin Colleges employ 3 of nitre to 2 of acid. According to Thompson, the strongest acid is obtained from 6½ parts of sulphuric acid to 12¾ of nitre; the specific gravity of which is 1.55.

Chemical Properties. It is one of the most energetic of substances. It acts upon the skin, and gives it a yellow stain; it is eminently poisonous; has a very strong affinity for water, and cannot be wholly separated from it, before decomposition takes place.

It acts as a supporter of combustion; in this case, it is decomposed, and the oxygen combines with the combustible.

Fig. 83.

Exp. Pass hydrogen and nitric acid through an ignited porcelain tube; a violent detonation will be produced, which is due to the combination of the oxygen of the acid and the hydrogen.

Exp. Pour strong nitric acid on dry, powdered charcoal; the charcoal will be ignited, with the evolution of dense fumes.

Exp. Phosphorus takes fire in it, (Fig. 83,) sometimes with violent explosion.

Exp. Pour nitric acid on to some of the essential oils, as spirits of turpentine, and they will be inflamed.

The acid in these experiments should be poured from a wine-glass, attached to the end of a long rod.

Nitric acid unites with various metals, such as iron, tin, copper, with great energy, and is decomposed by them. It also suffers decomposition by boiling it in contact with sulphur, or by exposing it to the solar rays. In this case, the color changes to a yellow, and deep orange, in consequence of the formation of *nitrous acid.* The action of the binoxide of nitrogen produces the same effect, as may be shown by passing it through nitric acid. In consequence of its yielding up its oxygen so readily, it is one of the most powerful *oxidizing* agents.

Uses. It is used extensively in chemistry and the arts; for etching on copper, and as a solvent of tin to form a mordant for some of the finest dyes; in metallurgy and assaying, to bring the metals to their maximum of oxidation; in medicine, as a tonic. The nitric acid of commerce is $\frac{1}{2}$ water, and called *double aqua fortis;* another kind, $\frac{3}{4}$ water, is called simply *aqua fortis.*

Nitrohydrochloric Acid. This is the *aqua regia* of the alchemists, and is formed of 1 part of nitric to 4 of hydro-

chloric acid. It possesses the remarkable property of dissolving gold and platinum, but does not form a distinct class of salts.

Nitrohydrofluoric Acid. This acid is formed by a mixture of nitric and hydrofluoric acids, and dissolves metals, which are not dissolved by the preceding acid, and is therefore an important re-agent.

Nitrogen and Chlorine.

Quadrochloride of Nitrogen. Symb. $N + 4Cl$ or NCl^4. Eq. $14.15 + 141.68 = 155.83$. Sp. gr. 1.653. Discovered in 1811 by Dulong, and subsequently examined by Davy and others.

Process. This very extraordinary substance may be formed by the union of nitrogen and chlorine in their nascent state, or the chlorine may be obtained in a jar, and inverted over a solution of 1 part of hydrochlorate of ammonia to 12 of water; a part of the chlorine unites with the hydrogen of the ammonia, forming hydrochloric acid, and another portion unites with the nitrogen of the ammonia, and forms the quadro-chloride of nitrogen, which appears in the form of yellow, oily drops on the surface of the solution.

Properties. A yellow, oily liquid, of an irritating and peculiar odor; it retains the liquid state below zero, Fahr. It may be distilled at 160° Fahr., but explodes between 200° and 212°, and suffers decomposition. It is one of the most explosive substances yet known. A drop of the size of a pea, brought in contact with phosphorus, or with any of the oils, will explode with great violence. It is dangerous to experiment with it, even in so small portions. Dulong lost an eye and a finger, and Davy had both eyes injured by exploding small quantities of it. As it is liable to explode without any assignable cause, great care should be used in its preparation

Nitrogen and Iodine.

Teriodide of Nitrogen. Symb. $N + 3I$ or NI^3. Eq. $14.15 + 378.9 = 392.24$. This compound, discovered by M. Courtois, is obtained in a similar manner with the preceding.

Exp. Put iodine in a solution of ammonia, and there will be precipitated a blackish powder, which may be thrown, in the course of half an hour, upon a filter, washed and dried. When dry, it explodes by the slightest touch, or even spontaneously.

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Nitrogen and Hydrogen.

Ammonia.   Symb. N + 3H or NH³.   Eq. 14.15 + 3 =
17.15.

History.   This substance was known to the alchemists by
the names of *hartshorn, volatile alkali, spirit of sal-ammo-
niac,* etc., but was first noticed as a distinct gas by Dr. Priest-
ley, who gave it the name of *alkaline air.*   The name *ammo-
nia* is derived from one of the salts from which it was pro-
cured, the hydrochlorate of ammonia, or sal-ammoniac, and
this from the temple of Jupiter Ammon, in Lybia, from
which place it was first obtained

Process.   Mix together equal parts of pulverized   **Fig. 84.**
hydrochlorate of ammonia and recently-slacked lime
in a common retort, and apply heat.   The gas may
be collected over mercury, or, in consequence of its
being lighter than the air, the materials may be put
into a Florence flask, *a,* (Fig. 84,) to which is at-
tached a long glass tube.   Invert over it a receiver,
r, and the gas will displace the air, and fill the re-
ceiver; (for a test of the gas, hydrochloric acid
may be used, which produces a white cloud.)   It
may also be obtained by simply heating the com-
mon aqua ammonia of commerce.   The *liquid ammonia,* or
aqua ammonia, is prepared by passing the gas through water
in Woulfe's apparatus, in the same manner as in the prepa-
ration of hydrochloric acid.   (See page 162.)
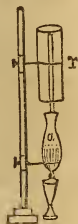
Theory.   When lime and the hydrochlorate of ammonia are used,
the hydrochloric acid deserts the ammonia, and combines with the lime,
leaving the former to escape in the gaseous form.

Properties.   Ammonia is a colorless gas, of a strong, pun-
gent odor; becomes a transparent liquid under pressure of
6.5 atmospheres, and at a temperature of 50° Fahr.   It cannot
support respiration in its pure state, but may be inhaled with
safety when mixed with the air.

It is inflammable, but extinguishes the flame of most burn-
ing bodies.

Exp.   A candle immersed in this gas, burns with increased flame,
tinged with yellow before it goes out.   When expelled from an orifice

surrounded by oxygen gas, and ignited, it burns with a pale yellow flame. The products are water and nitrogen.

It has a strong affinity for water and for alcohol.

Exp. A few drops of water, introduced into a jar of the gas over mercury, will instantly absorb it, and the mercury will rise.

Ice placed in a jar of it over mercury, is melted rapidly.

Alcohol absorbs several volumes of this gas, and the solution has a strong odor, commonly called *spirits of hartshorn.*

The *decomposition of ammonia is effected by chlorine and iodine.*

Exp. Place a flask of ammonia over a bottle with a wide mouth, containing chlorine gas. The gases will instantly combine, as will be seen by a sheet of white flame.

Theory. The chlorine unites with the hydrogen of the ammonia, forming hydrochloric acid; and this unites with some undecomposed ammonia, and forms hydrochlorate of ammonia, and will be deposited on the sides of the flask in a solid state.

*Ammonia, both in the gaseous and liquid form, possesses decided alkaline properties.**

Exp. Place a jar of ammoniacal gas on a plate containing vegetable infusion, and the infusion will become green.

Uses. Ammonia is used in the arts and in medicine. In chemistry, it is employed to neutralize acids.

Exp. Colors changed by acids may often be restored by ammonia. Hence clothing spotted by acids, especially woollen clothes, may have the color restored by moistening the spots with the liquid ammonia.

In medicine, it is used as a tonic. It is a powerful and

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* *Ammenium* (Eq. NH^4) is a hypothetical compound of nitrogen and hydrogen. Although it has never been isolated, yet many chemists have inferred its existence. When ammonia is decomposed by a voltaic current, the nitrogen escapes at the positive and the hydrogen at the negative pole; but if the negative pole terminate in a cup of mercury, the hydrogen unites, it is supposed, with the nitrogen in the proportion of NH^4, forming a compound which unites with the mercury, causing it to swell up and assume the consistency of soft butter. But this spongy mass begins to suffer decomposition as soon as the current ceases, yielding ammonia and hydrogen, while the mercury regains its original state.

Ammidogen (NH^2) is another hypothetical compound similar to the above, which has been supposed to be the base or radical of all the ammonia compounds. Thus, when ammoniacal gas (NH^3) is heated with potassium, there is formed a compound having the composition NH^2K, or containing one equivalent of hydrogen less, the H being evolved in the process. So ammonia may be considered as composed of $NH^2 + H$. See *Organic Chemistry.*

grateful stimulant, producing the useful effects of alcohol, without its injurious consequences. Ammonia is the substance employed for smelling-bottles.*

SECT. 8. CARBON.

Symb. C.   Equiv. $\begin{cases} \text{by vol. 100.} \\ \text{" wgt. 6.12} \end{cases}$ Sp. gr. $\begin{cases} 3.52 \text{ Water} = 1 \\ 6.12 \text{ Hyd.} = 1. \end{cases}$

Natural History. Carbon is one of the most important and useful of substances. Like all other substances of extensive utility, it is widely diffused. It exists abundantly in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms. The greater part of the substance of trees, and of animal bodies, is carbon It is rarely found quite pure in nature, and cannot be formed perfectly pure by art. The only pure carbon is the diamond.

The diamond is found in the East Indies and in Brazil, S. A. They generally occur in alluvial soils, in detached crystals, the primitive form of which is the regular octohedron, but sometimes have twenty-four, and even forty-eight faces. They are of various colors, brown, black, red, blue, and green, or colorless and transparent; the latter are the most valued.† The diamond is the hardest body in nature. It is a powerful refractor of light, a property which led Newton to predict its combustion. Lavoisier first proved it to contain carbon, by exposing it in oxygen gas to the solar focus. The product was carbonic acid. In 1807, the combustion of the diamond in oxygen was found by Allen and Pepys to be attended by the same results as that of charcoal. Davy confirmed these results by comparing the combustion of the diamond with that of various kinds of charcoal. Another proof of its identity is the fact, that diamond converts iron into steel in the same manner as charcoal.

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* To prepare a smelling-bottle, it is only necessary to put a small quantity of quick lime and hydrochlorate of ammonia into a small bottle, and keep it corked tight, only when it is used.

† Diamonds are of various sizes; some are as large as a pigeon's egg, and the value increases with the size in a very rapid ratio.

Uses. The diamond is the most valued of gems; used in jewelry, and for the purpose of cutting glass.

The other kinds of carbon are the following : —

Plumbago. This is carbon nearly pure, containing four or five per cent. of iron. It is sometimes called *black lead*, and used for pencils, crayons, etc. It is found native in primitive formations, and is next to the diamond in purity.

Anthracite is a species of fossil coal, the next in purity.

Bituminous coal is similar to the preceding, with the addition of bitumen, when the bituminous and volatile matter is driven off by heat; it is called *coke*, which is nearly pure carbon.

Peat is an impure kind of carbon, containing uncarbonized vegetable matter, mixed with earthy substances.

Lampblack is a kind of carbon which is obtained by the combustion of turpentine, pitch-pine, camphor, and almost any species of combustible matter, containing carbon. It is deposited from flame in the form of a fine black powder. For use in the arts, it is chiefly made by turpentine manufacturers, from the refuse resin. This is burned in a furnace, and the smoke, carrying up the carbon, is conducted to a room hung with sacking, upon which the lampblack is deposited. It is collected and sold without further preparation. It is used extensively as a paint — that from camphor is the best.

Ivory black is a kind of lampblack obtained from burning bones, sometimes called *animal charcoal.*

Charcoal. If wood be burned in the open air, nothing remains but ashes; but if the air is mostly excluded, so that it undergoes a smothered combustion, a black, brittle substance remains, called *charcoal*, which is nearly pure carbon

Processes. 1. For the common purposes of fuel, it is prepared by forming the wood into a conical pile, and covering it with earth. The combustion is slow, in consequence of the small quantity of air which is admitted; the volatile parts are driven off, and the carbon remains.

2 It is also prepared by distillation of wood, in large iron

cylinders. This is the mode of preparing it for the manufac-
ture of gunpowder. Beside the charcoal, two valuable sub-
stances, the pyroligneous acid and tar, are obtained.

3. But the purest charcoal is prepared by charring wood
under sand or melted lead. It should be put immediately
into bottles, corked tight, to exclude the air.

Properties. Carbon is a black, brittle, shining, inodorous
substance, easily pulverized, a good conductor of electricity
and a bad conductor of caloric.

It is the hardest substance in nature. Common charcoal
appears soft, but this is in consequence of its pores. If
rubbed upon glass, it will scratch it.

It has the property of absorbing various gaseous bodies.

Exp. Heat a piece of charcoal, and plunge it into mercury until
cool, then place it under a glass receiver over mercury. In the course
of twenty-four or thirty-six hours, it will absorb of ammonia 90 times
the volume of the charcoal:

Hydrochloric acid, ...	85	Olefiant gas, ...	35
Sulphurous acid, ...	85	Carbonic oxide, ...	9.42
Hydrosulphuric acid, . . .	55	Oxygen, ...	9.25
Protoxide of nitrogen, . . .	40	Nitrogen, ...	7.5
Carbonic acid, ...	35	Hydrogen, ...	1.75

The gases will be given up again by heating the charcoal,
or partially by *plunging it into water.*

Theory. *This power cannot be attributed wholly to chemical action,*
but is due to the porous texture of the charcoal; and the gases appear
to be absorbed in the same manner that sponges and other porous
bodies absorb liquids. The property is most remarkable in the com-
pact varieties, such as that from box-wood, where the pores are numer-
ous and small. By reducing it to powder, this power is diminished.
In plumbago, and in the diamond, it is wholly wanting.

But how does this account for its absorbing more of one gas than of
another? Chemical affinity has doubtless some influence, but it is
mostly due to the *elasticity* of the gases. Those gases, easily converted
into liquids, are absorbed in greater quantities than those more perma-
nent; hence *vapors* are absorbed more easily than gases, and liquids
than ether. Hence, too, charcoal, when exposed to the air, or other
gases, increases in weight.[*]

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[*] The increase varies with the kind of wood from which it is made.
According to the experiment of Allen and Pepys, charcoal from fir
gains 13 per cent.; lignumvitæ, 9.6 per cent.: that from

Box, ...	14.	Oak, ...	16.5
Birch, ...	16.3	Mahogany, . .	18.

The absorption is the most rapid during the first twenty-four hours; it absorbs oxygen from the air more rapidly than nitrogen.

It also absorbs the *odoriferous* and *coloring principles* from most animal and vegetable substances.

Exp. Pass ink through pulverized charcoal, and the color will be discharged. Red wines, rum, and brandy, may be rendered colorless by filtration through it.

It is used extensively for *refining sugar*, and for preparing colorless crystals of citric acid, and other vegetable productions Stagnant water, and most animal and vegetable substances, in a putrescent state, will be cleansed and purified by this substance; hence its use to purify docks, vessels, etc. Putrescent meat is purified by rubbing it with charcoal; and, generally, all substances subject to putrescence may be preserved for a long time, by surrounding them with charcoal.

In consequence of this property, it is used in medicine as an antiseptic in *putrescent diseases.* Animal charcoal is the best for these purposes, and as its efficacy depends upon its power of absorption, it should be heated, to expel all the gas, before it is used, or kept in well-stopped bottles as soon as prepared.

It is very combustible. It requires a strong heat to ignite it, but then it will burn for a long time, the oxygen of the air uniting with it and forming carbonic acid.* In consequence of this property, *it is one of the most useful substances in nature.*

It is the most durable substance known. Grains of wheat and rye charred in Herculaneum by the volcanic eruption, A. D. 79, were easily distinguished from each other, eighteen centuries afterward; an arrow head has been charred, and even the form of the feather preserved. The stakes driven down in the bed of the Thames, by the Britons, to prevent the army of Julius Cæsar from passing the river, were discovered about fifty years since, and were all charred to a considerable depth. They were as perfect as when driven; were made into knife-handles, and *sold as antiques* at a high price. Farmers char their troughs and posts to prevent decay.

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* Large quantities of powdered charcoal often *ignite spontaneously,* owing, doubtless, to the small quantity of potassium which is generally found in connection with it

It is infusible by any degree of heat, except that from a powerful galvanic battery ; and in this case there is reason to doubt whether there is a fusion of any thing but of some impurities in the carbon.

Uses. The uses of carbon have already been stated, and are generally well known. It is one of those substances which are indispensable to the wants, to the existence of our race ; and the Creator has given us, in its character and abundance, the most decisive proofs of his wisdom and benevolence.

Carbon possesses extensive powers of combination, and forms a class of substances of great and permanent utility in chemistry, the arts, and the common business of life.

Carbonic Oxide. Symb. CO or $\dot{C}$. Equiv. $6.12 + 8 = 14.12$. Sp. gr. 0.9727, air $= 1$.

History. Discovered by Priestley by the distillation of charcoal with the oxide of zinc ; but its composition was first determined by Mr. Cruickshank.

Process. The best and most convenient mode of obtaining this substance, is to put 2 parts of well-dried chalk, pulverized, to 1 of iron filings, into a gun-barrel, and raise the temperature to a red heat. The gas may then be collected over water ; it may be obtained, also, by heating the oxides of several of the metals with powdered charcoal.

Theory. Chalk is composed of carbonic acid and lime. One equivalent of oxygen contained in the acid, goes to the iron, and converts the acid to the carbonic oxide ; oxide of iron and lime remain, or CO_2 + CaO and Fe are converted into FeO, CaO, and CO.

Properties. A colorless, insipid gas, of an offensive odor. It is *highly inflammable*, and burns with a pale blue flame when a lighted taper is plunged into it, but does not support combustion. A mixture of 1 part of oxygen to 2 of the gas *is explosive ;* the result is carbonic acid. *It is destructive to animal life ;* an animal immersed in it soon dies When diluted with air, it causes fainting and giddiness.

Carbonic Acid. Symb. C + 2O, CO_2 or $\ddot{C}$. Equiv. 6.12 + 16 = 22.12. Sp. gr. 1.5239, air $= 1$.

History. Discovered in 1757 by Dr. Black, who called

it *fixed air.** This was the first gas known, except the atmosphere, and laid the foundation of *pneumatic chemistry.*

Natural History. Carbonic acid exists very abundantly in nature, generally in combination with lime, forming the *carbonate of lime*, or marble.

Process. It is obtained by the combustion of the diamond in oxygen gas, or by burning charcoal in the air, or oxygen; but it is more easily obtained by decomposing some of the *carbonates.* Take pulverized carbonate of lime (marble or chalk) in a glass retort, and pour on sulphuric or hydrochloric acid, diluted with five or six parts of water, and collect over water, or in a globe receiver, in the same manner as hypochlorous acid gas.† (See page 138.)

Theory. In this process, the sulphuric acid combines with the lime, forming the sulphate of lime, and liberates the carbonic acid. SO^3, $CO^2 + CaO$ are converted into $SO^3 + CaO$ and CO^2.

Properties. It is colorless, inodorous, and elastic, requiring a pressure of thirty-six atmospheres, 540 lbs., to the square inch, to condense it into a liquid — more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as heavy as atmospheric air, and hence may be poured from one vessel to another, like water.

It is neither a combustible nor a supporter of combustion.

Exp. Into a jar of carbonic acid, let down a pendent candle. It will be extinguished as soon as it reaches the gas, or it may be poured upon the candle from a vessel. The flame does not cease from want of oxygen, since four measures of air and one of carbonic acid will extinguish flame; hence a positive influence is exerted upon it.

It is rapidly absorbed by water.

Exp. If a small quantity of water be agitated in a bottle containing carbonic acid gas, it will soon absorb it, and acquire acid properties.

Recently-boiled water will absorb one volume of the gas at the common temperature and pressure, but increases in its absorbing power in proportion to the pressure applied. It absorbs twice its volume when the pressure is doubled, three times its volume when the pressure is trebled, etc.

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* Its composition was first demonstrated synthetically by Lavoisier, who obtained it by the combustion of charcoal in oxygen gas. Smithson Tennant proved its composition analytically by passing the vapor of phosphorus over chalk, heated to redness in a glass tube.

† If intended to be kept long, it should be transferred from the cistern in bottles, as the water rapidly absorbs it.

Water may be acidulated with it, by employing *Woulfe's apparatus*, in the same manner as with hydrochloric acid, (See page 162.) In the common soda fountains, the water is confined in a strong brass or copper vessel, and charged with the gas by a forcing-pump. The pleasant, pungent taste and sparkling appearance of fermented liquors, soda, and Seidlitz waters, and the waters of many mineral springs, are due to the carbonic acid which they hold in solution. The water saturated with it makes a pleasant and healthful drink.

But the gas escapes on exposure to air and heat. Hence all such drinks soon become insipid.

If the pressure is removed, the escape of gas is much more rapid.

Fig. 85.

Exp. Place a tumbler of water, (Fig. 85,) saturated with this gas, under the receiver *a* of an air-pump *b*, and exhaust the air. The gas will escape so rapidly as to present the appearance of boiling. Any of the fermented liquors will produce similar phenomena.

If the water saturated with the acid be rapidly congealed, the frozen water has the appearance of snow, its bulk being greatly increased by the immense number of bubbles formed by the liberated gas.

It is an acid, as shown by chemical tests.

Exp. Put a piece of litmus paper into water saturated with it, and it is turned red; but by heat, or exposure to the air, the color returns, owing to the escape of the acid.

This is not the case with any other acid; the colors they form are generally permanent, unless changed by alkalies.

The best test of carbonic acid is lime water, which is rendered turbid by the gas.

Theory. Carbonic acid unites with the lime which the water holds in solution, and forms the carbonate of lime, which is soluble in water, and is precipitated in fine powder. This gives to the water a milky appearance. If, however, you continue to add carbonic acid, it will dissolve the carbonate, and the water will become clear again, *carbonate of lime* being very soluble in excess of carbonic acid.

Solidification of Carbonic Acid. It has lately been ascer
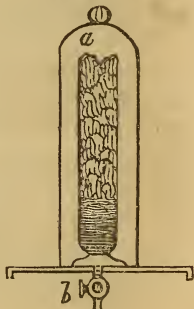
tained, that when the gaseous carbonic acid is subjected to a pressure of thirty-six atmospheres, it is condensed into a liquid, and at –85° into a solid resembling compact snow.*

Relations to Animal Life. Although water saturated with carbonic acid proves a healthful and invigorating drink, the free acid cannot be taken into the lungs without producing almost instant death; in fact, the glottis closes at its approach, and will not suffer it to enter. If it be diluted with air, it acts upon the system as a narcotic poison; an animal thrown into it is usually suffocated.† Carbonic acid is heavier than the air, and hence often remains in wells and deep pits, where it is generated, and called by the miners *choke-damp.* Before descending, a candle should be let down, and if it will not burn, life cannot be supported. The acid may be absorbed by pouring down large quantities of water; it may be partially expelled by exploding gunpowder near the bottom; or it may be drawn up with large buckets.

Production of Carbonic Acid. Causes are in constant operation to form carbonic acid, and throw it off into the

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* Mr. Faraday first condensed carbonic acid into a liquid by placing carbonate of ammonia in one end of a strong glass tube, bent twice at right angles, and sulphuric acid in the other end, which is sealed hermetically. When the acid is poured upon the ammonia, it combines with it and liberates the gas, which, by the pressure, is condensed; but this process is attended with much danger, from the bursting of the tube. A safer method has been contrived by Thillorier, in which the gas is condensed in a strong metallic cylinder. By allowing the liquid acid to escape through the stop-cock, it expands so rapidly as to become frozen, owing to the absorption of its sensible caloric. A reduction of temperature to –162° is said to have been produced by this means. The solid acid thus formed is about the weight of carbonate of magnesia, perfectly white, and of a soft, spongy texture. It evaporates so rapidly that mercury, and even alcohol, (sp. gr. .820,) are frozen. According to the experiments of Mitchell, of Philadelphia, the greatest cold produced by the solid acid in the air was –109°, and under an exhausted receiver –136°. The pressure at 32° was 36 atmospheres, at 66°, 60 atmospheres, and at 86°, 72 atmospheres, or 1290 lbs. to the square inch. When obtained in a liquid form in a glass tube, it is colorless and extremely fluid In attempting to open the tubes at one end, they uniformly burst into fragments, with *violent explosions.*

† *Caution.* This gas is always produced in burning charcoal; and hence the danger and criminality of placing pans of hot coals in sleeping apartments, or in rooms not ventilated by a chimney. The acid gradually mixes with the air, causing drowsiness, and even death, before the person can escape. Every year adds new proofs, in the loss of many lives, to the folly and danger of such practices.

atmosphere.   It is evolved in great quantities from the earth, from ordinary combustion, and by the respiration of animals. In the two last cases, the oxygen of the air is consumed, and carbonic acid takes its place ; hence we should expect, if there were nothing to counteract this process, that the whole atmosphere would, in time, be rendered unfit to support respiration ; but not more than $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of the atmosphere is carbonic acid.   In places near cities, or where it is evolved from the earth, the proportion may be greater.   This tendency, however, may be counteracted by the vegetable kingdom.   During the daytime, plants absorb carbonic acid, decompose it, retain its carbon, and throw off its oxygen.   In the night, the process is reversed ; oxygen is consumed, and carbonic acid is thrown off ; but more of oxygen is emitted in the daytime than is consumed in the night ; more carbonic acid also is consumed during the day than is given off during the night.   The balance from this process is needed to meet the demands of the animal kingdom, which constantly consumes oxygen, and generates carbonic acid in the process of respiration.   Thus the equilibrium of the atmosphere is preserved, and both kingdoms flourish together.

Exp. That carbonic acid is given off in respiration, may be shown by breathing with a quill through lime water, which will become turbid.   This fact enables us to understand the process of

Respiration.   The blood, in its progress through the system, becomes filled with carbon, which gives to it a dark color.   When it passes into the lungs, the air is brought in contact with it ; the carbon unites with the oxygen, forming carbonic acid, which is expelled, and the blood is changed to a bright red ; it is now fitted to nourish the system.   Some suppose that the oxygen enters into the blood, and that the combination takes place during the course of circulation ; but whichever theory be adopted, carbonic acid is thrown off and oxygen is consumed.   Hence, in crowded assemblies, great quantities of this gas are formed, and, as a consequence, dulness and fainting often ensue.   Hence, also, the necessity of having large public rooms well ventilated.

Dichloride of Carbon (Symb. C^2Cl.   Equiv. $12.24 + 35.42 = 47.66$) was discovered by M. Julin.   It occurs in small, soft, adhesive fibres, of a white color, of a peculiar odor, resembling spermaceti, and is tasteless ; burns with a red flame, emitting much smoke, and fumes of hydrochloric acid gas.

Protochloride of Carbon.   Symb. CCl.   Equiv. $6.12 + 35.42 = 41.54$. It is obtained by passing the vapor of perchloride of carbon through a

heated glass tube, filled with fragments of rock crystal, to increase the heated surface. It is a *limpid, colorless* liquid; density, 1.5526.

$\frac{5}{4}$ *Chloride of Carbon.* Symb. C^4Cl^5. Equiv. $24.48 + 177.1 = 201.58$ Discovered by Liebig, and sometimes called the *new chloride of Liebig ;* obtained by boiling chloral with a solution of lime, potassa, or baryta. It is a limpid, colorless liquid, similar in odor and appearance to the oily fluid which chlorine forms with olefiant gas ; density, 1.48 ; boils at 141° Fahr

Perchloride of Carbon. Symb. C^2Cl^3. $12.24 + 106.26 = 118.5$. Discovered by Faraday. When olefiant gas is mixed with chlorine, combination takes place between them, and an oil-like liquid is formed, consisting of carbon, hydrogen, and chlorine. Expose this liquid, in a jar of chlorine, to the solar rays, and hydrochloric acid is set free, and the chlorine unites with the carbon.

Properties. At common temperatures, it is a colorless, transparent solid, of an aromatic odor, resembling that of camphor; fuses at 320°, and boils at 360°.

Chloro-carbonic Acid. Symb. $O + C + Cl$. Equiv. $8 + 6.12 + 35.42 = 49.54$. This singular compound of oxygen, chlorine, and carbon, affords a somewhat unusual instance of two acidifying principles uniting with one base to form an acid. It was discovered by Dr. Davy, who called it *Phosgene gas.* It is formed by exposing equal volumes of chlorine and carbonic oxide to the solar rays, when rapid but silent combustion takes place, and they contract to one half their volume.

Properties. A colorless gas, with a strong odor ; reddens litmus paper, and combines with four times its volume of ammoniacal gas. Water and several of the metals decompose it.

Chloral (Symb. $C^3Cl^6O^4$. Equiv. 299.60) is a new compound of carbon, oxygen, and chlorine, discovered by Liebig, and prepared by the mutual action of alcohol and chlorine. It is a colorless, transparent liquid, of a penetrating, pungent odor, nearly tasteless, oily to the touch ; density, 1.502, and boils at 201°.

Periodide of Carbon was discovered by Serullas, and is obtained by mixing an alcoholic solution of pure potassa and of iodine. It forms crystals of a pearly lustre, sweet to the taste, and of a strong, aromatic odor, resembling saffron.

The *Protiodide* is formed by distilling a mixture of the preceding compound with corrosive sublimate. It is a liquid of a sweet taste, and penetrating, ethereal odor.

Bromide of Carbon. Formed by mixing 1 part of periodide of carbon with 2 of bromine : two compounds are formed, the *bromide of carbon* and the *sub-bromide of iodine ;* the latter is removed by a solution of caustic potassa. It is liquid at common temperatures, but crystallizes at 32° Fahr. ; sweet to the taste, and of a penetrating, ethereal odor ; distinguished from the protiodide by the vapor which it emits on exposure to heat

Carbon and Hydrogen.

Two compounds of carbon and hydrogen have been known for some time, but of late the number has been increased to at least twelve.

Dicarburet of Hydrogen. Symb. $C + 2H$ or CH^2. Equiv. $6.12 + 2 = 8.12$. Sp. gr. 0.5593, air $= 1$.

History. This substance is generally known under the name of *light carbureted hydrogen.* The names *heavy inflammable air*, the *inflammable air of marshes*, and *hydrocarburet*, have also been applied to it; but, taking carbon as the electro-negative element, it is more agreeable with the principles of nomenclature to call it a *dicarburet of hydrogen.* Dalton first ascertained its real nature, but it was subsequently examined by Davy, Thompson, and Henry.

Process. This gas is formed naturally by the decomposition of vegetable matter in marshes. It may be obtained by inverting a receiver in almost any stagnant pool, and stirring the sediment at the bottom. In this state it contains one twentieth part of carbonic acid, and one fifteenth of nitrogen; the former may be removed by lime water or pure potassa. This is the best mode to obtain the pure gas.

It is formed also by the distillation of mineral coal, containing carbonic acid and olefiant gas; the former may be removed by lime water, the latter by chlorine.

Properties. Colorless, tasteless, and nearly inodorous. Water absorbs $\frac{1}{60}$ of its volume. It extinguishes all burning bodies, but is highly combustible. It burns in a jet with a yellow flame, brighter than hydrogen; destructive to animal life when respired; partially decomposed by a very intense heat.

Exp. *Mixed with rather more than twice its volume of oxygen, it is explosive;* exactly two volumes of oxygen are consumed, and the products are carbonic acid and water.

Exp. Mixed with moist chlorine gas, and exposed to the solar light, it is decomposed, and hydrochloric and carbonic acids are formed; though the products will depend upon the quantity of chlorine.

Olefiant Gas, or $\frac{3}{4}$ Carburet of Hydrogen. Symb. $2C + 2H$. Eqviv. $12.24 + 2 = 14.24$. Sp. gr. 0.9808, $= 1$.

History. Discovered in 1796 by some associated Dutch chemists, who called it *olefiant gas* from its forming an oil-like liquid with chlorine. It has been called *hyduret of car bon, bicarbureted* or *percarbureted hydrogen;* but ⅔ *carburet of hydrogen* accurately designates its composition, and is, on this account, preferable.

Process. Mix in a large retort 1 measure of alcohol with 2 of concentrated sulphuric acid, and apply the heat of a spirit lamp. The mixture soon turns black, and rises up in the retort; the gas is rapidly disengaged, and may be collected over water or mercury; carbonic and sulphuric acids are formed during the process, and may be separated by pure potassa or lime water.

Theory. Alcohol is a compound of olefiant gas and water. The sulphuric acid unites with the water, and the gas is evolved. C^2H^3O and SO^3 are converted into SO^3, HO, and C^2H^2. At the commencement of the process, *ether* is formed, which differs from alcohol by having 2 equiv. of olefiant gas combined with water, while alcohol has but 1. The ether is condensed in the cistern.

Properties. It is a colorless, tasteless gas, and has scarcely any odor when pure. Water absorbs ⅛ of its volume. It extinguishes a lighted taper when immersed in it, and therefore does not support respiration. It burns with a clear, white light.

Mixed with oxygen, it is highly explosive.

Exp. Mixed with oxygen in the proportions of 1 volume of the gas to 3 of oxygen, and kindled by flame, or the electric spark, it explodes with great violence. This may be shown by the gas pistol. There is, however, much danger of bursting the pistol; glass vessels should not be employed to explode it.

Exp. Bubbles of the mixture may be passed up through the water of the cistern, and exploded upon the surface; but care should be taken that the fire is not communicated to the vessel containing the mixture, through the bubbles as they rise.

It is decomposed by heat. By passing it through a porcelain tube at a low red heat, charcoal is deposited, and the bicarburet evolved, which, at a white heat, is also decomposed. It is also resolved into hydrogen and carbon by a succession of electric shocks.

Action of Chlorine. When 2 volumes of chlorine and 1 of olefiant gas are mixed and ignited, they burn rapidly,

and form hydrochloric acid, while the carbon is deposited but, if the gases remain at rest, they slowly combine, and form an oily liquid, of a yellow color, called *chloride of hydrocarbon.*

$\frac{4}{4}$ *Carburet of Hydrogen, Etherine,* (Symb. $4C + 4H$. Equiv. 24.48 $+ 4 = 28.48$. Sp. gr. 0.627, water $= 1$,) was first obtained by Faraday in the process of compressing oil gas into strong copper globes, for the supply of portable gas. It is a highly volatile liquid, the lightest liquid body known. At 60°, it is exceedingly combustible, and burns with a brilliant flame.

$\frac{3}{6}$ *Carburet of Hydrogen* (Symb. $6C + 3H$. Equiv. $36.72 + 3 = 39.72$. Sp. gr. 0.85) was obtained by Faraday from the same oil gas liquid which yielded etherine. At common temperatures, it is a colorless, transparent liquid, smells like oil gas, with a slight odor of almonds. It is highly combustible, and forms with oxygen a powerful detonating mixture.

Parraffine is a compound of carbon and hydrogen, obtained by the distillation of the petroleum of Rangoon, and also by that of tar derived from beech wood. It is a fatty substance, without taste or odor, and burns with a pure white flame.

Eupione differs from the preceding compound only in containing a smaller portion of carbon. It is obtained by distillation of the tar derived from bones or horns. It is a tasteless, inodorous liquid, similar to oils, but as limpid as alcohol.

Naphtha (Symb. $6C + 5H$. Equiv. $36.72 + 5 = 41.72$. Sp. gr. 0.753) is obtained from coal tar by distillation. It is a volatile, limpid liquid, of a strong, peculiar odor, and generally of a light yellow color It is *very inflammable*, burning with a white flame and much smoke. It is used to preserve potassium.

Naphthaline (Symb. $C^{10}H^4$. Equiv. $61.2 + 4 = 65.2$) is obtained in the same manner as the preceding compound. It is a white, crystalline solid, heavier than water, has an aromatic pungent taste, and faintly-aromatic odor. With sulphuric acid, it forms a compound, first described by Faraday in 1826, under the name of *sulpho-naphthalic acid*, which has a bitter taste and acid properties.

Paranaphthaline (Symb. $C^{15}H^6$. Equiv. $91.8 + 6 = 97.8$) is allied to the preceding, and obtained from coal tar.

Idriuline is also similar, and obtained from a mineral in the quicksilver mines at Idria, in Carniola.

Camphene and *Citrene.* Symb. $C^{10}H^8$. Equiv. $61.2 + 8 = 69.2$. Camphene is the basis of camphor; *colorless*, volatile, and inflammable odor like the oil of turpentine. *Citrene* is almost the sole ingredient of the oil of lemons.

Gas Lights.

History. The gas, now so generally employed for the purpose of lighting cities, is probably a mixture of several o.

the preceding substances, composed mostly, however, of *olefiant gas.* This gas was first employed for the purposes of illumination by Dr. Clayton, in 1739, but was soon given up for more than sixty years. The subject was investigated, about fifty years since, by Mr. Murdock; and since that time gas lights have come into general use, both in Europe and America. The gas was obtained chiefly from the distillation of coal; but that obtained from oil (spermaceti is the best) is much purer, and possesses a greater illuminating power. Gas from rosin is about equal to that from oil.

Process. When oil is used, several large cylindrical cast-iron retorts are laid across a furnace, and partially filled with brick and bits of iron, to increase the heated surface. The oil is contained in a reservoir, and conveyed to the retorts by separate tubes. When the retorts are heated to the proper temperature, the oil is admitted by a stop-cock, in a small stream, so that it is immediately decomposed, and the gas passes out of the retorts by other tubes, running into a large one, which conveys it to the gasometer.*

When coal is used, the process is similar: the gas needs to be purified by passing it through lime water, to deprive it of carbonic acid and other impurities, which give it a very disagreeable odor; 112 pounds of coal yield from 450 to 500 cubic feet of gas; sp. gr. 0.450 to 0.700; and $\frac{1}{2}$ a cubic foot of gas per hour is equivalent to a candle, six to the pound, burning during the same time. But oil gas, though much more expensive, possesses nearly twice the illuminating power According to Henry, it requires vessels and tubes of but half the size. 20 cubic feet of coal gas, or 10 of oil gas, is equal to a pound of tallow.†

Portable Gas. In consequence of the greater cheapness of gas lights, as compared with candles and oil, it seemed

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* The gasometer is made of iron, in some cases 40 feet in diameter and 20 feet high, containing 20,000 cubic feet. This is immersed in a vat containing water, and the air permitted to escape by a valve in the top. When it is filled with water, the gas from the large pipe is conducted to the bottom, and passes up through the water into the gasometer, which rises as fast as it is filled. The gas is now conveyed in a cast-iron pipe, laid under ground, to which small pipes are attached, branching off to every part of the city where it is wanted.

† Coal gas costs about two thirds as much as oil gas, and about one fifth as much as spermaceti candles.

desirable to contrive some method by which it could be made
portable. This object has been effected by what are called
portable lamps. The gas, by means of a forcing-pump, is
compressed into strong brass globes, and ignited as it escapes
through an aperture which is furnished with a stop-cock to
regulate the quantity. These can be carried about like com-
mon oil lamps. For this purpose, the gas obtained from rosin
is employed.

Fire-Damp. This term is applied to several gaseous com-
pounds of carbon and hydrogen, which are produced in the
mines of bituminous coal. It is mostly *light carburetted* hy-
drogen, and was generated in the original process of forming
the coal. It issues from various parts of the coal beds, in
such quantities as to render the whole atmosphere of the mines
explosive, and often irrespirable. Hence the miners were
exposed to frequent explosion, and to suffocation. Many ex-
plosions have occurred in the coal mines of England : the
older mines extend miles under the ground, and, in some
cases, are several hundred feet deep. As the gases are
lighter than the air, they rise and mingle with the air near
the top, and gradually descend until they reach the miner's
lamp, when the whole is instantly exploded.* In conse-
quence of the great expense of human life, and the constant
fear of the miners, Sir H. Davy undertook the investigation
of the subject for the purpose of inventing some means of
safety. He went with the miners into the region of the fire-
damp, obtained specimens of the gas, and subjected it to
chemical examination. He found that the most explosive
mixture was 1 part of gas to 7 or 8 of air; 5 or 6 volumes of
air would explode but feebly, and above 14 volumes of air to
1 of gas did not explode at all. It was also found that it re-
quired the heat of flame to explode it. Iron at a red heat,
and even at a white heat, would not affect it. But the fact
which led immediately to the invention of the *safety lamp,*
had been observed by Dr. Wollaston, that *" an explosive mix-
ture cannot be kindled through a glass tube so narrow as $\frac{1}{7}$ of
an inch in diameter."* It was also noticed that the mixture
could not be exploded through fine wire sieves, or gauze
wire, which acts on the same principle as longer tubes.

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* In 1812, an explosion occurred in Felling colliery, in Northumber-
land, by which ninety-two men lost their lives. The explosion was
heard three or four miles ; thirty-two persons only were saved alive
In 1815, a similar occurrence happened at Durham, and destroyed
fifty-seven persons ; and in another, twenty-two lost their lives

Fig. 86.

Exp. Place the gauze wire *a* (Fig. 86) over a jet of the gas; the flame may be pressed down, and will not pass through the wire.

Exp. Let a stream of the gas pass through the wire *c*; the gas may be ignited on the top of the wire, but will not communicate through it to the tube *b*. The same is true of flame,* by whatever substance it is produced. The wires conduct off the heat, so that they do not gain the temperature requisite to ignite the gas.

Safety Lamp. This consists simply of a common lamp, *a*, (Fig. 87,) with a gauze wire, *b*, surrounding the flame. The wire should have at least 625 apertures to the square inch. Furnished with this lamp, the miners can enter the mines in perfect safety from explosion, but are exposed to suffocation, when there is not sufficient oxygen in the mines to support the combustion of the oil.

Fig. 87.

To enable the miner to escape from the mine when the atmosphere becomes such as to extinguish the flame of the lamp, a platinum coil may be inserted around the wick. Thus, in the lamp *b*, (Fig. 88,) let a platinum coil *a* be inserted around the wick; when the flame ceases, the combustion will continue slowly for hours, so as to heat the platinum red-hot. This will give sufficient light to enable the miner to escape.

Fig. 88.
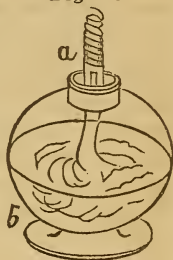
This is founded on the fact, that platinum wire or foil will, if heated, cause certain gases to combine gradually, with the production of a red heat, but without flame.

Exp. Pour a small quantity of ether into the lamp, and, having heated the coil of platinum, plunge it into the ether; the heat of the wire will cause the vapor of ether and the oxygen of the air to com-

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* The flames of candles, lamps, gas lights, &c., are hollow, as may be shown by holding a plate of glass over them. Flames formed by a mixture of oxygen with the combustible are solid : hence the use of the blowpipe, bellows, &c., to render the flame solid and increase the heating power.

bine, so as to keep the wire red-hot, and sometimes even at a white heat, when the ether will burst into a flame

Carbon and Nitrogen.

Bicarburet of Nitrogen, or *Cyanogen.* Symb. NC^2 or Cy. Equiv. $14.15 + 12.24 = 26.39$. Sp. gr. 1.804, air $= 1$

History. This gas was discovered in 1815, by Gay Lussac It is sometimes called *nituret of carbon*, but *bicarburet of nitrogen* expresses definitely its composition.

Process. It is obtained from the bicyanide of mercury, by heating the salt in a small glass retort, with a spirit lamp. The retort should be covered with lute, to prevent its melting. At a red heat, it is decomposed. The cyanogen passes over in the form of a gas, and the mercury is sublimed, and remains in the neck of the retort in small globules. Collect over mercury or air.

Properties. This gas is colorless, with a strong, pungent odor; not a supporter of combustion, but burns itself with a beautiful purple flame, resembling the peach blossom Water, at the common temperature and pressure, absorbs $4\frac{1}{2}$ times its volume, and alcohol 25 times its volume. At the temperature of 45°, and under a pressure of 3.6 atmospheres, it is condensed into a limpid liquid, but resumes the gaseous state when the pressure is removed. The most remarkable chemical property of this substance is, that it acts like a simple body in most of its combinations, forming substances consisting of *three* elementary bodies, analogous to those formed in other cases by *two.*

Cyanic Acid (Symb. Cy $+$ O. Equiv. $26.39 + 8 = 34.39$) may be obtained by exposing cyanuric acid to a dull red heat. It has a penetrating odor, pungent, and caustic to the skin, producing great irritation of the eyes; very volatile, giving off an inflammable vapor.

Fulminic Acid. This is isomeric with the preceding, i. e., identical in composition, but possessed of different properties. It is called *fulminic* because its compounds of mercury and silver are highly explosive.

Cyanuric Acid (Symb. $Cy^3O^6H^3$. Equiv. 130.17) was obtained by Serullas by gently boiling bichloride of cyanogen

in water: cyanuric and hydrochloric acids are the results. The hydrochloric is removed by evaporation, and the cyanuric deposited, on cooling, in oblique rhomboidal crystals. The crystals are further purified by solution and evaporation.

Paracyanuric Acid is identical in composition with the preceding, but different in properties; it results from the spontaneous decomposition of hydrous cyanic acid.

Chloride of Cyanogen. Symb. Cy + Cl. Eq. 61.81. First obtained in a pure state by Serullas, in 1829, by exposing bicyanuret of mercury in powder, and moistened with chlorine gas in a well-stopped vial. It congeals at zero in needle-shaped crystals; is liquid between 5° and 10°, but above this it is a colorless gas, of a very offensive odor, irritating to the eyes, corrosive to the skin, and highly injurious to animal life.

Bichloride of Cyanogen. Symb. Cy + 2Cl. Eq. 97.23. Discovered also by Serullas, by putting 155 grains of pure hydrocyanic acid into a bottle containing sixty cubic inches of dry chlorine, and exposing it to the solar rays. The acid is vaporized, and, in the course of a few hours, a colorless liquid is formed on the surface of the bottle, gradually growing thicker, until, in the space of twenty-four hours, it sets into a white solid, with shining crystals. This is the *bichloride of cyanogen*. It is exceedingly poisonous, caustic to the taste, and penetrating odor, similar to the chloride.

Bromide of Cyanogen is similar to the preceding.

Hydrocyanic Acid, or *Prussic Acid*, (Symb. Cy + H. Equiv. 26.39 + 1 = 27.39,) was discovered by Scheele, in 1782. Berthollet afterwards ascertained that it was a compound of carbon, nitrogen, and hydrogen; but it was first procured in a pure state by Gay Lussac.

Process. The best process is that of Vauquelin. Fill a narrow tube, placed horizontally, with fragments of bicyanuret of mercury, and then pass a current of dry hydrosulphuric acid gas very slowly through it. Double decomposition ensues as soon as the gas comes in contact with the bicyanuret, when hydrocyanic acid and bisulphate of mercury are formed. When the bicyanuret becomes black, the acid is expelled by a gentle heat, and collected in a receiver surrounded with ice.

Properties. It is a limpid, colorless liquid, of a strong, but agreeable odor, similar to that of peach blossoms. It excites, at first, a sensation of coolness on the tongue, which is soon followed by heat; but, when diluted, it has the flavor of bitter almonds; exceedingly volatile; boils at 79°, and

congeals at zero; unites with alcohol and water in all
proportions, but possesses very feeble acid properties.

It is a most virulent poison. A single drop, if placed on
the tongue of a dog, causes instant death. A girl swallowed
a small quantity of it diluted with alcohol, and fell instantly,
as if struck with lightning, and died in two minutes.

A professor of Vienna put drops upon his arm, and was
deprived of life in a few minutes. But though a most potent
poison in its pure state, when much diluted, it has been em-
ployed as a medicine, in cases of consumption, with beneficial
effects. This, like many other violent poisons, cannot be
employed for criminal purposes, without the almost certain
risk of being discovered. It exists in the laurel, peach, and
in beef-steak.

Sect. 9. Sulphur.

Symb. S. Equiv. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{by vol. 16.66.} \\ \text{“ wgt. 16.1.} \end{array}\right.$ Sp. gr. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{6.6558 Air} = 1. \\ \text{1.99 \ \ Water} = 1. \end{array}\right.$

Sulphur has been known from the remotest antiquity.

Natural History. It exists in nature, in a pure state, in
the vicinity of volcanoes. It collects in the craters, either in
fine powder or in crystalline solids; but it exists more abun-
dantly in combination with the metals, forming the sulphurets
of iron, copper, lead, silver, etc., from which it may be sub-
limed by heat, but is not quite pure. It is found also in many
mineral waters; in many minerals, such as gypsum, sulphate
of strontia, etc.; in all animals, and some plants.

Process. The sulphur of commerce exists in two states;
in rolls, called *roll brimstone,* and in fine powder, called *flow-
ers of sulphur;* but the two varieties are readily resolved into
each other by the application of heat.

Exp. Heat a brick, or small iron cup, to nearly a red heat. Place
upon it roll brimstone, and invert over it a bell-glass receiver; the
sulphur will *sublime,*[*] i. e., pass into a fine powder, like vapor, and col-

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[*] This may serve to illustrate the process of *sublimation* as applied
to other substances. Camphor and gum benzoin are easily sublimed
The process of converting mercury into vapor, and condensing it, is
also called sublimation, although it is a liquid.

ec on the sides of the vessel. In this way the *flowers of sulphur* are prepared.

Properties. Sulphur is a brittle solid, of a lemon-yellow color, nearly tasteless, and inodorous, except when rubbed or heated. It is a *non-conductor* of electricity, but becomes *negatively electrified* by friction; fuses at 216° Fahr.; possesses the highest degree of fluidity between 230° and 280°, and is of an amber color; at 320°, it begins to thicken, acquiring a red tint; between 428° and 482°, it is so tenacious as to remain in the vessel when inverted; but, from 482° to its boiling point, it grows fluid again, and sublimes rapidly from 550° to 600° Fahr.

When cooled from the several temperatures above named, it possesses different degrees of consistency. Cooled suddenly from the most fluid state, it is hard and brittle; but if plunged into cold water between the temperatures of 320° and 482°, it is soft, and may be drawn out like wax; cooled from the boiling point, it is of a deep red-brown color, very soft and transparent. It is prepared in this way for taking seals. The native crystals are octohedrons, with rhombic bases; those formed artificially occur in oblique rhombic prisms

Exp. Melt a few pounds of sulphur in an earthen crucible,* (Fig. 89,) and, when it is partially cooled, pierce the crust so that the fluid parts may flow out; on breaking the mass when cooled, the interior will exhibit a cluster of beautiful crystals. Fig. 89 represents a section of the crucible containing the sulphur after it has cooled.

Fig. 89.
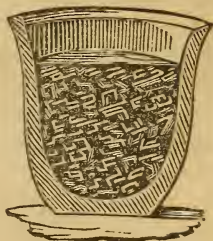
Sulphur is soluble in boiling oil of turpentine, which is a test of its purity. Sulphur is highly combustible; it burns with a pale blue flame, and combines readily with the metals.

Exp. Mix copper or iron filings with sulphur, and heat them in a glass tube, or crucible, by a spirit lamp. The sulphur will combine, and form *sulphurets* of these metals.

Impurities. Sulphur contains some hydrogen in its purest

* There are four principal varieties of crucibles : — 1. *Wedgwood crucibles* are made of a mixture of burned and unburned clay ; 2. *Black*

state; but the more common ingredients are earthy substances and arsenic; the latter is tested by ammonia.

Uses. Employed extensively in the manufacture of gunpowder, for seals, medallions, and as a cement for iron. Used in medicine, for the diseases of the skin, humors, etc. The *milk of sulphur*, which is sulphur combined with water, and precipitated from some of its alkaline solutions by an acid, occurs in a gray powder, and is sometimes used in medicine.

Hyposulphurous Acid. Symb. $2S + 2O$. Eq. $32.2 + 16 = 48.2$. It is difficult to procure this in a pure state. It may be formed by digesting sulphur in a solution of any *sulphite*. It is distinguished by uniting with the oxide of silver, which separates the acid from soda.

Sulphurous Acid. Symb. $S + 2O$ or SO^2. Eq. $16.1 + 16 = 32.1$. Sp. gr. 2.2117, air $= 1$.

History. Sulphurous acid appears to have been known from an early period. Stahl first pointed it out as a distinct substance; but its discovery in a pure state was made by Priestley, in 1774, and accurately analyzed since, by Gay Lussac and Berzelius. It exists in nature in the vicinity of volcanoes, and issues from the fissures in the craters, and from the lava, often in immense quantities.

Process. Burn sulphur in common air, or in dry oxygen gas, over mercury; but the best method is to put 2 parts of mercury and 3 of sulphuric acid into a retort, and apply the heat of a lamp, and collect over mercury.

Theory. The sulphuric acid has 3 equiv. of oxygen, one of which unites with the mercury, forming the oxide of mercury, which combines with some undecomposed sulphuric acid, and forms the sul-

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lead *crucibles* are formed by a mixture of clay and plumbago; 3. *Hessian crucibles* are composed of a mixture of sand and clay; 4. *Metallic crucibles* are made of silver, platina, &c. These latter are used with the spirit lamp in analytical processes. The form of these vessels is represented in Fig. 90. Metallic and porcelain crucibles are generally provided with covers and stands, as in the figure, but the best stand is a piece of firebrick.

Fig. 90.
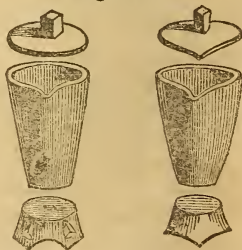
phate of mercury, which remains in the retort, and the sulphurous acid comes over in the gaseous state. The gas is heavier than the air, and can be collected in a manner described on page 139, fig. 64.

Properties. A transparent, colorless gas, sour to the taste, and *pungent, suffocating odor*, by which it is distinguished from all other gases; extinguishes burning bodies, but is not combustible.

Exp. A candle immersed in a jar of this gas is instantly extinguished.

It is irrespirable, and fatal to animal life. When largely diluted with air, it excites coughing, and uneasiness about the chest; when perfectly pure, it excites spasms of the glottis, which prevent its introduction into the lungs; of course, an animal confined in it is instantly suffocated.

It reddens vegetable colors, and then discharges them.

Exp. Place a rose over an ignited sulphur match in the open air, and it will turn white; hence it is used for bleaching straw, silk, and for removing fruit-stains from woollen cloths, etc.

It has a strong attraction for water and oxygen. Water absorbs it so rapidly, that, if a jar of the gas be inverted over it, the atmosphere will force the water into the jar with great violence; recently-boiled water absorbs 33 times its volume.

Sulphurous acid will remain with dry oxygen without change, but if water be present, it combines with oxygen, and forms sulphuric acid. It instantly decomposes those oxides, the metals of which have a weak affinity for oxygen, such as those of gold, platinum, and mercury. Nitric acid yields to it one proportion of oxygen, and converts it to sulphuric acid.

Liquid Sulphurous Acid. It becomes liquid by the pressure of two atmospheres, and even by surrounding it with a freezing mixture. In this state it is *anhydrous*, a little heavier than water, (sp. gr. 1.45,) and boils at 14° Fahr.

By its evaporation, it produces so intense a degree of cold, that mercury may be frozen, and several of the gases rendered liquid.

Exp. Pour liquid sulphurous acid upon water contained in a shal-

9*

low vessel; the acid will boil, and its vapor will absorb so much caloric that the water will soon be frozen.

Exp. Or pour it upon mercury in a shallow dish, and place it under the exhausted receiver of an air-pump; the mercury itself will soon congeal.

It may be obtained in the solid form in crystals containing water, by passing the moist gas through a receiver, cooled from 50° to 14° Fahr.

Uses. Sulphurous acid is often employed for bleaching purposes, for whitening straw and silks, and for the barbarous purpose of killing bees.

Hyposulphuric Acid. Symb. 2S + 5O. Equiv. 32.2 + 40 = 72.2. This acid was discovered in 1819, by Welter and Gay Lussac.

Process. It may be formed by passing sulphurous acid gas through water containing peroxide of manganese. By the interchange of elements, the sulphate of the protoxid and the hyposulphate of the protoxide of manganese are formed; the latter remains in solution. The manganese is thrown down by pure baryta, and the hyposulphate of baryta obtained, which crystallizes by evaporation, and is then decomposed by sulphuric acid, by which the sulphate of baryta is precipitated, and hyposulphuric acid remains in solution.

Properties. Colorless, inodorous, sour to the taste, reddens litmus, and cannot be wholly freed from water.

Sulphuric Acid. Symb. S + 3O, SO³, or S̈. Equiv. 16.1 + 24 = 40.1. Sulphuric acid was discovered by Basil Valentine, near the close of the fifteenth century. It is commonly called *oil of vitriol*, because it was first obtained by the distillation of *green vitriol*, (*sulphate of iron or copperas*.) It exists in nature abundantly in the sulphate of lime (gypsum.)

Process. Anhydrous sulphuric acid may be obtained from the hydrous acid, manufactured at Nordhausen, in Germany, from the *protosulphate of iron*, and called *fuming sulphuric acid*. But the best method is that of Professor Mosander, of Stockholm. — Saturate the oxide of antimony with excess of sulphuric acid, and then, by a slow heat, drive off the excess

ei acid, when the salt will crystallize as a dry sulphate of antimony. Expose this salt to a dull red heat in a retort, and the anhydrous acid will be driven off, and may be collected in a dry receiver, surrounded with ice.

Properties. In this state, the acid has some peculiar properties. It is a white, opaque solid; fuses at 66° Fahr.; sp. gr. 1.99; boils between 104° and 122°, forming a transparent vapor; has *a powerful affinity for water*, so that, on exposing it to the air, it flies off in white fumes, forming 4 definite compounds with water, which are thus constituted:

$$2SO^2 + HO \quad SO^2 + HO \quad SO^2 + 2HO \quad SO^3 + 3HO$$
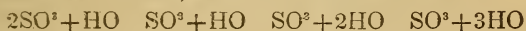
Exp. Burn a mixture of 8 parts of sulphur to 1 of nitre in a vessel of oxygen gas containing a vegetable infusion; the acid will be absorbed by the water, and change the infusion red.

But the process for manufacturing this acid in the arts, is done in chambers *lined with sheet lead.** 8 parts of sulphur to 1 of nitre, coarsely bruised and mixed together, are put upon iron plates, 1 lb. to 300 cubic feet of air. The mixture is ignited by a hot iron, and the door closed. Water, to the depth of 6 inches, covers the floor, and absorbs the acid as fast as formed. The room is then ventilated, and the process repeated every four hours, until the water is sufficiently acid; or, by an improvement in the structure of the room, the sulphur is burned in a separate room, and the air, admitted continually, carries the acid vapor into the chamber, where it is condensed by the water. This acidulated water is then drawn off and concentrated by heat, in leaden boilers, until it is of the specific gravity 1.450, and the concentration is finished in glass or platinum dishes placed in sand baths.

Theory. By the combustion two gases are formed — sulphurous acid from the sulphur, and binoxide of nitrogen from the nitre. The latter combines with the oxygen of the air, and is converted into the nitrous acid. The sulphurous and nitrous acids then combine with the watery vapor, and form a crystalline solid, composed of sulphuric acid, hyponitrous acid, and water. When this solid drops into the water, it is instantly decomposed, the sulphuric acid is retained in the water, and nitrous acid and binoxide of nitrogen escape. The nitrous acid thus set free, as well as that formed by the binoxide and oxygen of the air, again combines with the moist sulphurous acid, and forms the solid, which sinks to the water, and is decomposed again. This process con-

* The usual size of the chamber is 20 feet long, and 12 wide; but in one establishment in England, the chamber is 120 feet by 40, and 20 high, containing 96,000 cubic feet.

tinues, until the whole is converted into sulphuric acid, and absorbed by the water.

Properties. *Hydrous sulphuric acid,* when pure, is an oily, limpid liquid, colorless, inodorous, intensely sour and corrosive; destroys, by the aid of heat, all animal and vegetable bodies, with the deposition of charcoal, and formation of water; hence the acid often attains a *brown tinge* by charring substances which accidentally fall into it; boils at 620° Fahr., and freezes at –15°. When its specific gravity is 1.78, it congeals above 32°, and remains solid up to 45°; but when mixed with twice its weight of water, it congeals at –36°.

It has a powerful affinity for water. It combines with the water of the air, even at boiling temperatures, so powerfully that its greatest concentration can be effected only by glass or platinum retorts with narrow mouths.

Exp. 4 parts of sulphuric acid and 1 of water, each at 50°, when poured together, have a temperature of 300°. The heat is occasioned by the diminution of bulk, by which the insensible caloric becomes free.

Exp. 2 parts of acid and 3 of snow form a mixture which will freeze water, and the thermometer will sink even to –23°. The cold results from its affinity for water; it dissolves the snow to obtain it; and the heat necessary to render the water liquid is absorbed from the acid and the snow, and passes into an insensible state.

Exp. 1 part of snow to 3 of acid will produce a heating mixture, because the condensation develops more heat than is required to melt the snow.

The decomposition of sulphuric acid is effected by heat, and by the non-metallic combustibles.

Exp. Pass hydrogen gas and sulphuric acid through a red-hot porcelain tube.

Exp. Heat this acid with charcoal, or put into it vegetable substances.

Exp. Expose the acid to the galvanic battery; the sulphur will appear at the negative, and the oxygen at the positive pole. Its specific gravity never exceeds 1.9.

Its strength is tested by its specific gravity, and by the quantity required to saturate a given portion of an alkali. 100 grains of the carbonate of soda will neutralize 92 of pure sulphuric acid. It may be detected in any solution by the chloride of barium, by which a white, insoluble solid is precipitated — the sulphate of baryta.

It is one of the most powerful of acids, reddens the vegetable infusions, unites with bases, and forms salts, which are called *sulphates.*

It is a most violent poison. The best antidote is dry magnesia. If water be taken, it will produce a very great heat, and thus increase its injurious effects.

Uses. It is one of the principal acids of chemistry and of the arts, in which greater quantities are employed than of any other acid; for the formation of most of the other acids; for the preparation of soda from salt, of alum from sulphate of iron; for obtaining chlorine and other gases; for dissolving indigo for dyes. It is used in medicine as a tonic.

Dichloride of Sulphur (Symb. $2S + Cl$. Eq. 67.62. Sp. gr. 1.687) was discovered by Dr. Thompson, in 1804. *Prepared* by passing a current of chlorine gas over flowers of sulphur, gently heated, till nearly all the sulphur disappears. The dichloride is then obtained by distillation in the form of a reddish liquid.

Iodide of Sulphur. First described by Gay Lussac. Formed by heating 4 parts of iodine with 1 of sulphur. A dark-colored substance, easily decomposed by heat.

Bromide of Sulphur is obtained by pouring bromine on sublimed sulphur. The product is an oily liquid, of a reddish tint; odor resembles the dichloride of sulphur.

Sulphur and Hydrogen.

Hydrosulphuric Acid. Symb. SH. Equiv. $16.1 + 1 = 17.1$. Equiv. vol. 100. Sp. gr. 1.1782, air $= 1$. This substance was discovered by Scheele, in 1777, and has been variously named, *sulphureted hydrogen* and *hydrothionic acid.*

Process. It may be obtained from the sulphurets of the metals. The one generally employed is the *protosulphuret of iron,* which is a native product, but can be prepared by heating 2 parts of iron filings with $1\frac{1}{2}$ of sulphur to a red heat, in a covered crucible; upon this, in a retort, pour dilute sulphuric acid, apply gentle heat, and collect over water. *Sesquisulphuret of antimony,* treated in the same manner with hydrochloric acid, will yield a purer gas; the former contains a little iron and hydrogen.

Theory. The oxygen of the water unites with the iron, and its hydrogen with the sulphur, and the sulphuric acid unites with the oxide of iron; the products are *hydrosulphuric acid* and *sulphate of*

the protoxide of iron. FeS, SO^3 and HO are converted into SO^3 + FeO, and SH.

Properties. It is a colorless gas, but has an *excessively offensive taste and odor;* it is this gas which gives the odor to putrescent eggs, sewers, and the waters of sulphurous springs. It *extinguishes* burning bodies, but *burns* with a pale blue flame; forms an *explosive mixture* with oxygen, and is *so destructive to animal life* that $\frac{1}{1500}$ part of this gas in air destroys small birds; $\frac{1}{800}$ part killed a middle-sized dog, and $\frac{1}{250}$ part a horse. If placed on the cutaneous surface of animals, it will prove fatal to them. Reddens litmus feebly, but unites with bases and forms salts.

Water absorbs 3 volumes of the gas, and forms a colorless liquid, similar to the gas in taste and odor. This water is a *test of the metals.* Nitric acid will cause a precipitate of sulphur; and if poured into a bottle of the gas, a blue flame will pervade the vessel, and sulphur and nitrous acid fumes be produced. If exposed to the air, it deposits its sulphur on the surface of the vessel; but it is readily decomposed by metals in solution; the sulphur combines with the metal, and the hydrogen is liberated.

It is also decomposed by *chlorine* and *iodine,* because of their great affinity for hydrogen. Hence *chloride of lime* is used to purify places rendered noxious by this gas. It is partially decomposed by heat, in a porcelain tube.

Liquid Hydrosulphuric Acid. Mr. Faraday succeeded in condensing the gas. Under a pressure of 17 atmospheres, it is colorless, limpid, and excessively fluid; compared with it, ether appears tenacious and oily. On breaking a tube under water, it rushed out violently, and assumed the gaseous state.

Test. The best test of this gas is carbonate of lead. 1 part of the gas mixed with 20,000 of air will give a brown stain to a surface whitened with the lead. Hence persons who use preparations of lead to improve their beauty, on coming into the vicinity of this gas, often change their color.

Exp. Write on paper with any of the salts of lead in solution, and pass a stream of the gas over it; the writing will instantly appear.

Uses. In medicine for cutaneous eruptions, in the laboratory as a test of metals; hence its use in analytical processes,

Production of Sulphur in Volcanoes by the Meeting of Sulphurous and Hydrosulphuric Acids. These acids are generated in volcanoes, and, as they meet, are decomposed, and sulphur is deposited. This may be shown in the following manner : —

Let two small retorts *a, a,* (Fig. 91,) pass into a globe receiver, *b,* so that their mouths shall nearly touch each other. Put the materials for sulphurous acid into one, and for hydrosulphuric acid in the other, and apply heat; as the two

Fig. 91.

gases meet in the receiver, they will be decomposed, and the sulphur will be deposited upon the interior surface, in fine powder.
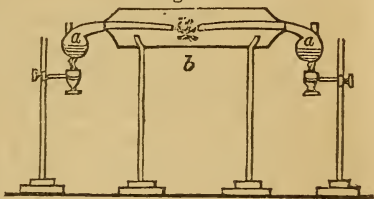
Hydrosulphurous Acid. Symb. $2S + H$. Equiv. 33.2. Discovered by Scheele, who called it *supersulphureted hydrogen.* The names *hydrothionous acid, per* or *bisulphureted hydrogen,* and *persulphuret of hydrogen,* have also been applied to it.

It is similar in taste and odor to *hydrosulphuric acid,* but not so powerful; semi-fluid, inflammable, and easily decomposed by heat into sulphur and hydrosulphuric acid.

Sulphur and Carbon.

Bisulphuret of Carbon, or *Alcohol of Sulphur, Carbosulphuric Acid.* Discovered accidentally by Professor Lampadius, in 1776; but its true nature was first pointed out by Clement and Desormes.

Process. It is obtained by heating, in a close vessel, the native bisulphuret of iron (*iron pyrites*) with one fifth of its weight of dry charcoal. " The compound, as it is formed, should be conducted, by means of a glass tube, into a vessel of cold water, at the bottom of which it is collected. To free it from moisture and adhering sulphur, it should be distilled at a low temperature, in contact with chloride of calcium." — T.

Properties. A transparent, colorless liquid, remarkable for its high refractive power, acid, pungent, and somewhat aromatic taste, and fetid odor; specific gravity, 1.272, exceedingly volatile; boils at 110°; *very inflammable,* and burns with a pale blue flame. With oxygen, its vapor forms an explosive mixture; with binoxide of nitrogen, it forms a

mixture which burns with dazzling brilliancy; dissolves in alcohol and ether, and is precipitated by water; *dissolves* phosphorus, sulphur, and iodine, giving to a solution of the latter a beautiful pink color. It is decomposed by chlorine.

Cyanogen and Sulphur.

Sulphuret of Cyanogen was discovered in 1828, by M. Lassaigne, by the action of bicyanuret of mercury, in fine powder, upon half its weight of bichloride of sulphur, confined in a small glass globe, and exposed for two or three weeks to daylight. A small quantity of crystals, biting to the tongue, and of a penetrating odor, collected in the upper part of the vessel, which form red-colored compounds with per salts of iron.

Bisulphuret of Cyanogen (Symb. $2S + Cy$) was discovered by Liebig, by exposing fused sulphocyanuret of potassium to a current of dry chlorine gas; it forms a dry, yellow powder.

Hydrosulphocyanic Acid. Symb. S^2CyH. Equiv. 59.59. Discovered in 1808, by Mr. Porritt, who ascertained it to be a compound of sulphur, carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen. It is sometimes called *sulphocyanic acid*, and may be formed by suspending sulphocyanuret of silver or mercury in water, and by transmitting through it a current of hydrosulphuric acid gas; sulphuret of silver or mercury, and hydrosulphocyanic acid, are generated; filter the solution, and expel the excess of gas by heat.

Properties. A liquid, either colorless, or a shade of pink; odor resembling vinegar; sp. gr. 1.002; boils at 216.5°; crystallizes in six-sided prisms at 45.5° Fahr.; acid to the taste, and by the chemical tests. It also unites with alkalies.

Test of its Presence. A salt of the peroxide of iron, to which it gives a deep blood-red solution; decomposed by exposure to the air, and by chloric or nitric acid.

Cyanohydrosulphuric Acid (Symb. S^2CyH^2. Equiv. 60.59) may be obtained by passing a current of hydrosulphuric acid through a saturated solution of cyanogen in alcohol. The liquid acquires a reddish-brown tint, and numerous small crystals, of an orange-red color, are generated. It is considered by Liebig to be similar in composition to the preceding, but to have one equivalent more of hydrogen.

Sect. 10. Phosphorus.

Symb. P.　Equiv. $\begin{cases} \text{by vol. 25.} \\ \text{`` wgt. 15.7.} \end{cases}$　Sp. gr. $\begin{cases} 1.77 \\ 4.3261 \end{cases} \begin{array}{l} \text{Water} = 1 \\ \text{Air} = 1 \end{array}$

History. Phosphorus received its name from the property of shining in the dark.*

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* φῶς, light, and φερω, to carry.

It was discovered by Brandt, an alchemist of Hamburg, in 1660. It was formerly obtained from urine, but the process of obtaining it was for a long time kept secret, and small quantities only were procured. Scheele obtained it from bones, and invented the method now generally employed. It exists in the bones of all animals, in the state of *phosphate of lime.* A middle-sized man has about òne pound of phosphorus in his bones.

Process. The bones are calcined in an open fire, reduced to a fine powder, and digested for a few days with one half their weight of sulphuric acid, with sufficient water to give them the consistency of paste. The phosphate of lime is decomposed, and the sparingly-soluble sulphate and soluble superphosphate of lime are generated. The latter is then dissolved in warm water, filtered and evaporated to the consistency of sirup.

It is then mixed with $\frac{1}{4}$ part of charcoal, in an earthen retort lined with clay, heated in a furnace to a high temperature, when the vapor of the phosphorus comes over, and is conducted by a tube into a bowl of water, where it is condensed into a reddish-brown solid. This is then fused in hot water, and distilled in hydrogen, or passed through chamois leather.

Properties. When pure, it is transparent and nearly colorless, or of a wax color; easily cut with a knife, and the surface has a waxy appearance and texture; fuses at 108°, and at 550° is converted into vapor; soluble by the aid of heat in naphtha, in fixed and volatile oils, and in the chloride of sulphur, sulphuret of carbon, and sulphuret of phosphorus. On cooling a solution of the latter, it crystallizes in dodecahedrons.

It is very inflammable. At common temperatures, it combines slowly with the oxygen of the air, giving a luminous appearance in the dark.

Exp. If a stick be placed in a receiver of air, it will absorb the oxygen, and leave the nitrogen.

Exp. If a stick of phosphorus be dusted over with charcoal or resin, and placed under the receiver of an air-pump, it will inflame on exhausting the air.

Exp. By *friction* it instantly ignites, and hence is employed for *matches.*

Exp. *When ignited in oxygen, it burns with great brilliancy.* This experiment should be conducted in a large globe receiver, (Fig. 92,) filled with oxygen, and the phosphorus placed in the centre by a pendent copper spoon. Dense white fumes of phosphoric acid are formed; these often mingle with the vapors of phosphorus and oxygen, which renders *the whole inflammable;* and hence the danger of breaking the receiver.

Fig. 92.

Exp. Let a stream of oxygen gas upon phosphorus in a fused state, under water, and flashes of light will pass up through the water.

Exp. Or put a few grains of chlorate of potassa into a glass of water, in which is a piece of phosphorus, and from the dropping tube pour on nitric or sulphuric acids; flashes of light will appear.

Exp. Drop a small piece into a glass containing a small quantity of strong nitric acid; it will burn vividly, and often *explode with great violence.* (See Fig. 77.)

Exp. Sweet oil dissolves it by the aid of heat, and the phosphorized oil can be put on the face and hair so as to render it luminous in the dark.

Theory. In all these cases, the light results from the union of phosphorus with oxygen; so strong is its affinity for oxygen, that it should always be kept under water. If exposed to the air, and held in the hands in a dry state, there is danger of its entering into a state of combustion, especially if any friction is applied to it.

Relation to Animals. It is very poisonous; acts as an excitant, and in large doses it proves fatal; but it is used sometimes as a medicine. It renders water poisonous in which it is kept.

Phosphorus and Oxygen.

Oxide of Phosphorus. Symb. $3P + O$. Equiv. $47.1 + 8 = 55.1$. It is obtained by burning phosphorus under hot water, by a jet of oxygen gas. The substance which remains after combustion is of a red color, without taste or odor; insoluble in water, alcohol, ether, and oil; is not volatilized at 662° Fahr., but takes fire at a low red heat. in the air and in chlorine gas. This substance has been examined by M. Pelouse, and found to be an oxide of phosphorus.

Hypophosphorous Acid (Symb. $2P + O$. Equiv. $31.4 +$
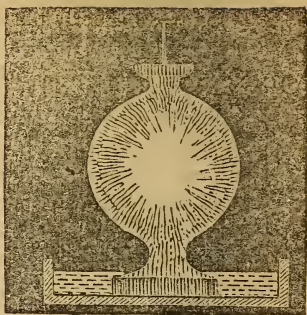
8 = 39.4) was discovered by Dulong, in 1816, and is obtained by the action of water upon the phosphuret of barium. Hypophosphite of baryta is formed soluble in water ; on filtering the solution, and adding sulphuric acid to precipitate the baryta, the hypophosphorous acid remains, and is concentrated by evaporation into a viscid liquid, capable of crystallization; this is the *hydrate* of the acid, and is a *powerful deoxidizing* * agent.

Phosphorous Acid (Symb. 2P + 3O. Equiv. 31.4 + 24 = 55.4) was discovered by Davy, and may be obtained by subliming phosphorus through the *bichloride of mercury*, in a glass tube; a *limpid* liquid distils over, which is a compound of phosphorus and chlorine. Put this into water, and the hydrogen of the water unites with the chlorine, forming hydrochloric acid, and the oxygen of the water combines with the phosphorus, forming *the phosphorous acid.* The solution is then evaporated to the consistency of sirup, to expel the hydrochloric acid, and the phosphorous acid crystallizes as a *hydrate.* The *anhydrous* acid may be obtained by burning the phosphorus in highly-rarefied air.

Properties. *Sour* to the taste, *odor* like garlic, and possesses acid properties ; has a strong affinity for oxygen, and is hence easily converted into phosphoric acid ; precipitates mercury, silver, platinum, and gold, from their saline solutions, in the metallic form.

Phosphoric Acid. Symb. 2P + 5O. Eq. 31.4 + 40 = 71.4. Under the term of phosphoric acid, three compounds have formerly been described, affording a remarkable instance of a class of bodies, called *isomeric*, which are identical in composition, but possess different properties. The names given to the three compounds are, *phosphoric, pyrophosphoric,* and *meta* or *paraphosphoric acids*.

1. *The Phosphoric Acid* has hitherto been obtained only in combination with water or an alkaline base.

Process. The *superphosphate* of lime is boiled for a few

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* Bodies are said to *deoxidize* when they abstract oxygen from its combinations with other bodies. They are said to *oxidize* when they yield oxygen to other bodies.

minutes with excess of carbonate of ammonia, by which the lime is precipitated as a phosphate. After filtration, the liquid is evaporated to dryness, and then ignited in a platinum crucible, to expel the ammonia and sulphuric acid.

Properties. Colorless, intensely sour, reddens vegetable infusions powerfully, and neutralizes alkalies. In the state of greatest concentration, it is composed of three equivalents of water, and one equivalent of acid, and may be made to crystallize in thin plates. It is remarkable for uniting with bases, in the proportion of 1 equivalent of the acid to 3 of the base, or the oxygen of the base and the acid as 3 to 5.

2. *The Pyrophosphoric Acid* is obtained by exposing concentrated phosphoric acid to a temperature of 145°.

Its properties are generally similar to the preceding, but it is distinguished from it by yielding a snow-white precipitate, when neutralized with ammonia, and mixed with the nitrate of the oxide of silver. *It is remarkable for its tendency* to unite with 2 equivalents of a base to 1 of the acid.

3. *Meta* or *Paraphosphoric Acid* is obtained by burning phosphorus in dry air, or oxygen gas. The acid appears in small crystals, like snow, on the interior of the vessel. It is formed, combined with water, by heating to redness the two preceding acids; when fused, it cools into a brittle and transparent solid, resembling ice, hence called *glacial phosphoric acid*, very deliquescent, and hence must be kept in close bottles. *It is distinguished* from the others by uniting 1 equivalent of a base to 1 of the acid.

Phosphorus and Chlorine.

The Sesquichloride of Phosphorus (Symb. $2P + 3Cl$. Equiv. $31.4 + 106.26 = 137.66$. Sp. gr. 1.45) may be formed by passing the vapor of phosphorus over corrosive sublimate, in a glass tube, or by heating the perchloride with the phosphorus.

Properties. It is a clear, limpid liquid, not acid by the

chemical tests, though it emits acid fumes when exposed to the air. This is due to the affinity of the chlorine for the hydrogen of the water contained in the air. When mixed with water, mutual decomposition takes place, with evolution of heat, and the formation of hydrochloric and phosphoric acids.

The Perchloride of Phosphorus is formed by the spontaneous combustion of phosphorus in chlorine gas. Symb. $2P + 5Cl$. Eq. 208.5.

Properties. A white solid, volatile at a temperature below 212°; heated under pressure, it fuses, and forms, in cooling, transparent, prismatic crystals. Thrown into water, mutual decomposition ensues.

Iodides of Phosphorus. There appear to be three compounds of iodine and phosphorus, produced by the spontaneous combustion of the two substances.

The Protiodide (Symb. $P + I$. Equiv. 142) has a yellow color, fuses at 212°, sublimes by heat unchanged, and is decomposed by water.
The Sesquiodide (Symb. $2P + 3I$. Equiv. 410.3) is a dark-gray crystalline mass, fuses at 84°.
The Periodide (Symb. $2P + 5I$. Equiv. 662.9) is a black compound, fusible at 114°.

Bromides of Phosphorus are formed by bringing phosphorus and bromine into contact, in a flask filled with carbonic acid.

The Protobromide (Symb. $P + Br$. Equiv. 94.1) is a liquid formed at the bottom of the flask, easily converted into vapor by heat, acts energetically upon water, and mutual decomposition takes place.
The Perbromide (Symb. $2P + 5Br$. Equiv. 423.4) is a yellow solid, converted by heat into a red-colored liquid, and into a vapor of a similar tint. When cooled from fusion, it yields rhombic crystals. Emits dense, penetrating fumes when exposed to the air, and is decomposed by water and chlorine.

Phosphorus and Hydrogen.

Phosphuret of Hydrogen, (Symb. $2P + 3H$. Equiv. 31.4 $+ 3 = 34.4$,) called also *hyduret of phosphorus,* was discovered in 1812, by Sir H. Davy, by heating hydrated phosphorous acid in a retort.

Properties. It is *colorless,* with the odor of garlic; does not take fire spontaneously in air, but instantly inflames in

chlorine gas, with a white light; forms with oxygen a det onating mixture.

Perphosphuret of Hydrogen is isomeric with the prece-ding. It was discovered in 1783, by Gengembre, and has been since examined by Dalton, Thompson, and others. The names *phosphureted hydrogen* and *hyduret of phosphorus* have also been applied to it.

Process. For the purposes of experiment, it is easily prepared in the following manner : Fill a pint retort half full of recently-slacked lime, and put into it a stick of phosphorus two or three inches long, cut into strips. Then pour on a strong solution of carbonate of potassa, filling the retort quite full. Place the beak of the retort in the cistern, and apply heat.* The gas will soon form and inflame when it comse in contact with the air, forming beautiful wreaths of smoke, which rise up from the water. Or it may be collected like any other gas.

Properties. This gas is colorless, and has a highly-offen-sive odor, and bitter taste ; will neither support flame nor respiration.

Fig. 93.
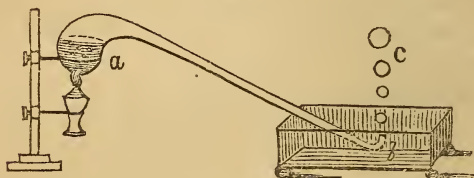
Inflames spontaneously when admitted into air, and explo-sively with oxygen gas. As the bubbles of the gas (Fig. 93) rise through the water in the cistern *b* into the air, they *inflame* successively, the phosphoric acid and vapor form a series of rings, as *c*, of dense white smoke, continually

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* The readiest mode of obtaining this gas is to heat phosphorus in connection with quicklime, forming the phosphuret of lime. Drop this into water acidulated with hydrochloric acid. The water is de-composed, and its hydrogen and oxygen unite with the phosphorus, and form hypophosphorous acid, phosphoric acid, and phosphuret of hydrogen

increasing in size as they arise, and producing one of the most striking and beautiful appearances in experimental chemistry. If a bubble of the gas is admitted into a receiver of oxygen gas, a bright flash of light is seen, and the receiver is jarred by the concussion. This is one of the most remarkable properties of this gas, and distinguishes it from all other gases. It is often produced by the decomposition of bones, in swamps and graveyards, and gives rise to those lights which are frequently seen about such places. It is the real " Jack o' the lantern," or " Will o' the wisp."

Water absorbs one eighth volume of this gas, and, if the gas is suffered to remain over water for a few days, it loses its spontaneous inflammability, but will inflame on the application of a lighted taper.

Phosphorus and Sulphur.

Sulphuret of Phosphorus. The nature of this compound is not accurately settled ; it is formed by bringing sulphur in contact with fused phosphorus. They act on each other with great violence, producing a compound of a reddish-brown color, which fuses at 16° Fahr., and is highly combustible.

Sect. 11. Boron.

Symb. B. Eq. 10.9. Equiv. vol. 100.

This substance was discovered in 1807, by Sir H. Davy, by exposing boracic acid to a powerful galvanic battery ; but its properties were first investigated by Gay Lussac and Thenard, who obtained it in greater quantity by heating *boracic acid* with potassium.

The easiest method of obtaining it is to decompose *borofluoride of potassium* by means of potassium and heat.

Properties. A dark *olive-colored solid*, without *taste* or *odor ;* a *non-conductor* of electricity ; sp. gr. nearly 2 ; insoluble in water, alcohol, ether, and oils ; does not decompose water at any temperature, and may be subjected to intense heat in close vessels without change ; heated to 600° in the air, it ignites, and is converted into boracic acid. When

heated with nitric acid, or with any substance which yields oxygen freely, it passes into boracic acid.

Boron and Oxygen.

Boracic Acid. Symb. B + 3O. Equiv. 34.9. Sp. gr. 1.479, water 1. This substance exists in nature in small quantities in the Lipari Islands, and the hot springs of Lasso, in the Florentine territory ; in combination with soda, in the well-known substance *borax, the biborate of soda,* used by smiths as a flux. It is also a constituent of the minerals *boracite* and *datholite.*

Process. To a *solution* of purified borax in boiling water, add half its weight of sulphuric acid, diluted with an equal quantity of water. On evaporation* and cooling, shining crystals of boracic acid will be deposited ; it may be purified by repeated solution in hot water and crystallization. This is a *hydrate,* containing 1 eq. of acid and 3 of water. The *anhydrous* acid may be obtained by heating this in a platinum crucible.

Properties. The *hydrous acid* exists in the form of *thin white scales,* without *odor,* and nearly *tasteless,* sparingly soluble in water, which reddens vegetable blue colors, and, like the alkalies, turns turmeric paper brown, soluble in boiling alcohol, and gives a beautiful green color to flame.

The *anhydrous acid* is a hard, colorless, transparent glass, absorbs water rapidly from the air, and should be kept in well-stopped vials ; exceedingly fusible, and communicates this property to the substances with which it unites. Hence its use in the arts as a *flux.*

Fig. 94.

* Fig. 94 represents the form of *evaporating dishes* ; some are made of clay and sand, others of porcelain, glass, silver, platinum, and gold. The substance to be evaporated is poured into them, and they are placed in a *sand bath,* which is simply a quantity of common sand contained in an iron vessel, and connected generally with the furnace or fireplace, so as to be kept constantly at a temperature below the boiling point.

Boron and Chlorine.

Terchloride of Boron. Symb. B + 3Cl. Eq. 117.16. Produced by the spontaneous combustion of boron in chlorine gas. It is rapidly absorbed by water, and unites with ammonia, forming a volatile fluid. It is also formed, according to Despretz, by passing dry chlorine gas over charcoal and boracic acid, ignited in a porcelain tube. It was first noticed by Davy, and examined by Berzelius, Dumas, and Despretz.

Boron and Fluorine.

Fluoboric Acid. Symb. B + 3F. Equiv. 66.94. Sp. gr. 2.3622. Discovered by Gay Lussac and Thenard, in 1810.

Process. Mix 1 part of pure boracic acid and 2 of fluorspar with 12 of sulphuric acid, in a glass flask, and apply heat; or heat a strong solution of hydrofluoric and boracic acids in a metallic retort.

Properties. A colorless gas, of a penetrating, *pungent odor;* extinguishes flame, reddens litmus powerfully, and unites with bases forming salts called *fluoborates.*

It has a powerful affinity for water, which absorbs 700 volumes of the gas; becomes hot, fuming, and caustic; attacks animal and vegetable substances with great energy. Some doubt yet exists concerning its true nature.

Boron and Sulphur.

Sulphuret of Boron is formed, according to Berzelius, by burning boron in the vapor of sulphur. The product is a white, opaque mass, readily decomposed by water.

SECT. 12. SELENIUM.

Symb. Se. Equiv. 39.6. Sp. gr. 4.32.

Selenium was discovered by Berzelius, in 1818, and named *Selenium*, from *Selene*, the moon, because he at first mistook it for tellurium.

Natural History. It is found in small quantities among

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the volcanic products of the Lipari Islands, in Clausthal in the Hartz, combined with lead, cobalt, silver, mercury, and copper. Berzelius obtained it from the iron pyrites of Fahlun.

Process. Mix the native sulphuret of selenium with 8 times its weight of peroxide of manganese, and expose it to a low red heat in a glass retort, the beak of which dips into water. The manganese yields its oxygen to the sulphur, and the selenium sublimes pure, or in the form of selenious acid.

Properties. A brittle, opaque solid, without taste or odor; its lustre is metallic, resembling lead in the mass, but the powder has a deep red color; softens at 212°, and may be drawn out into fine, transparent threads, which appear red by transmitted light; becomes fluid a little above 212°, and boils at 650°, yielding an inodorous vapor of a deep yellow color; sublimes, in close vessels, without change, and condenses into dark globules, or into a cinnabar-red powder, if the vessels are large. Heated in the open air, or in oxygen, it combines with the oxygen; under the blowpipe, it emits the strong odor of horseradish.

Selenium and Oxygen.

Oxide of Selenium (Symb. $Se + O$. Equiv. 47.6) is formed by heating selenium in a limited quantity of air, and washing the product to clear it from selenious acid. It is a colorless gas, which gives the peculiar odor to the selenium, when burned in the wick of a lamp.

Selenious Acid (Symb. $Se + 2O$. Equiv. 55.6) is formed by dissolving selenium in nitrohydrochloric acid. On evaporation, the acid is left as a white, crystalline solid, of a sour and burning taste; dissolves readily in water and alcohol, and attracts moisture from the air. It has distinct acid properties, and its salts are called *selenites*. It is decomposed by all substances which have a strong attraction for oxygen.

Selenic Acid (Symb. Se+3O. Equiv. 63.6) was first noticed by M. Nitzsch, and described by Mitscherlich in 1827.

Process. It is obtained by fusing nitrate of potassa or soda with selenium; a metallic seleniuret with selenious acid, or any of its salts. (For process, see Turner, 6th ed. p. 209.)

Properties. A colorless liquid: sp. gr. at 329°, 2.524; at 512°, 2.60. It is decomposed by heat at 536°, and is resolved into oxygen and selenious acid; has a powerful affinity for water, with which it combines, with the evolution of as much caloric as sulphuric acid and water. It dissolves zinc, iron, copper, and gold; unites with bases, and forms salts analogous, in composition and form, to those of sulphuric acid.

Chloride of Selenium is a white solid, obtained by placing selenium in chlorine gas.

Bromide of Selenium is an orange-colored solid; soluble in water, and obtained by dropping selenium into bromine. The combination is violent, with the evolution of much heat.

Selenium and Hydrogen.

Hydroselenic Acid. Symb. Se + H. Eq. 41. This acid was discovered by Berzelius, and some doubt exists as to its composition.

Process. It may be obtained by the action of hydrochloric acid upon a concentrated solution of any *hydroseleniate*.

Properties. A colorless gas, with an odor resembling hydrosulphuric acid. It irritates the membrane of the nose, exciting catarrhal symptoms, and produces temporary insensibility. Water absorbs it readily, and the solution reddens litmus, and leaves a brown stain upon the skin. On exposure to the air, it is decomposed, but decomposes all the salts of the common metals, forming *seleniurets* of the metal.

Selenium and Sulphur.

Bisulphuret of Selenium (Symb. Se+2S. Eq. 718) was obtained by Berzelius, by adding hydrosulphuric acid to a solution of selenious acid, when it is precipitated as an orange-colored powder; fuses at 212°, sublimes at a high

temperature without change; when heated in the open air, i
inflames, and is decomposed by nitrohydrochloric acid.

Seleniuret of Phosphorus, or *Phosphuret of Selenium*, is
prepared in the same manner as the sulphuret of phosphorus.
It is a very fusible substance; *imflammable*, and decomposes
water slowly, yielding seleniuret of hydrogen, and one of the
acids of phosphorus.

Sect. 13.   Silicon.

Symbol, Si.   Equivalent, 22.5.

Silicon was obtained by Berzelius, in 1824, by the action of
potassium on fluosilicic acid gas.   It was at first called *sili-
cium*, and regarded as a metal, but it is destitute of the me-
tallic properties.

Properties.   Silicon is a solid, of a dark brown color, and
a non-conductor of electricity.

Before ignition it is not oxidized, or dissolved by hot sul-
phuric or nitrohydrochloric acids, but is soluble in hydro-
fluoric acid, and in a hot, concentrated solution of caustic
potassa.   It burns readily in air, and vividly in oxygen gas;
but after ignition, it is insoluble and non-combustible.   It is
oxidized by heating it with nitrate of potassa, and explodes
when dropped upon fused hydrate of potassa, soda, or baryta,
in consequence of the evolution of hydrogen.

Silicon   and   Oxygen.

Silicic Acid, Silica.   Symb. $Si + 3O$.   Equiv. $22.5 +
24 = 46.5$.

Natural History.   Silicic acid, also called *silica, siliceous
earth,* and *silex,* constitutes nearly 40 per cent. of the crust
of the globe.   Hence it is the principal ingredient of exten-
sive mountain masses, of sand, and of several minerals, such
as quartz, flint, chalcedony, rock-crystal, etc.   It is the most
abundant ingredient in nearly all soils.

Process.   It may be prepared by heating rock-crystals, and
throwing them, red-hot, into cold water.

Properties. When reduced to powder, it is white, insipid, and inodorous. It is very infusible, requiring the heat of the compound blowpipe to fuse it; insoluble in water, unless presented in the nascent state; does not act upon test paper, but in every other respect, has the properties of an acid. Its combination with the fixed alkalies is effected by mixing pure sand with carbonate of potassa. If 3 parts of the carbonate to 1 of sand are mingled, the fused *silicate* is soluble in water; but if 1 part of the carbonate to 3 of sand be employed and fused, the well-known substance *glass* is formed, which is transparent, brittle, insoluble in water, and affected by no acid except the hydrofluoric.

Every kind of common glass is a *silicate*, and the different varieties are due to the proportions of the constituents, to the nature of the alkali, or the presence of foreign matter. Thus *green bottle glass* is made of materials containing iron; *Crown glass*, of pure alkali and sand, free from iron. *Plate glass*, for mirrors, is made of the purest materials. *Flint glass* contains red lead; and sometimes peroxide of manganese, or nitre, is added to oxidize the carbon contained in the materials.

Chloride of Silicon (Symb. Si + Cl. Equiv. 57.92) is prepared by burning silicon in chlorine gas. The product is a limpid, volatile liquid, flying off in white vapor when exposed to the air, with a suffocating odor resembling cyanogen; boils at 124° Fahr.

Bromide of Silicon (Symb. Si + Br. Equiv. 100.6) was obtained by Serullas, in the same manner as the chloride. It is a very dense, colorless liquid, emitting dense fumes.

Sulphuret of Silicon (Symb. Si + S. Equiv. 38.6) is formed by heating silicon in the vapor of sulphur. It is a white, earthy substance, instantly converted by the action of water into hydrosulphuric and silicic acids.

Fluosilicic Acid (Symb. Si + F. Equiv. 41.18) is formed by bringing hydrofluoric and silicic acids into contact. It is a colorless gas, which extinguishes flame, destroys animals immersed in it, and acts powerfully upon the respiratory organs. Water acts upon this gas with some change of properties, and the solution is called *silicohydrofluoric acid*.

CHAPTER II.

Class II. Metals, with their binary Compounds.

General Properties of Metals.

Metals are the most important of substances. They are distinguished from other substances by the following properties: —

1. They are all conductors of electricity and of caloric.

2. When combined with oxygen, chlorine, iodine, sulphur, and similar substances, and subjected to the voltaic battery, they always go to the negative electrode or pole, and hence are called positive electrics.

3. Metals are opaque; that is, they do not permit the light to pass through them, although reduced to thin leaves.

4. They are good reflectors of light, and possess a peculiar lustre, which is termed the *metallic lustre.* Any substance which has the above properties, may be regarded as a metal.

Metals differ greatly in their Properties.

1. *In their specific gravity.* Most of the metals are remarkable for their weight, such as gold and platinum, which are more than nineteen times as heavy as an equal bulk of water; while some, potassium and sodium, are lighter than water.

2. *In their malleability*, or the property of being beaten into thin leaves by hammering. Gold, silver, copper, tin, platinum, palladium, cadmium, lead, zinc, iron, nickel, potassium, sodium, and frozen mercury, are malleable. The others are malleable only in a slight degree, or, like arsenic, antimony, and bismuth, brittle. Gold is the most malleable of metals; one grain of which may be extended so as to cover fifty-two square inches of surface, and to have a thickness not exceeding $\frac{1}{282020}$ of an inch.

3 *In their ductility*, or the property of being drawn out into wires. Most of the malleable metals are also ductile. Gold, silver, platinum, iron, and copper, are the most *ductile*. Gold wire may be obtained so fine that it shall not exceed $\frac{1}{5000}$ of an inch in diameter, and platinum $\frac{1}{30000}$ of an inch. The *tenacity* of a metal is measured by the weight which a wire of a certain diameter can support without parting.

4. *In hardness.* Titanium, manganese, iron, nickel, copper, zinc, and palladium, are hard metals. Gold, silver, and platinum, are softer than these, lead still softer, and potassium and sodium yield readily to the pressure of the fingers.

5. *In their structure.* Many have a crystalline structure. Iron is fibrous; zinc, bismuth, and antimony, are lamellated; gold, silver, and copper, are found naturally in crystals, and others may be made to assume the form of crystals, when they pass gradually from a liquid to a solid state. Most of them, in crystallizing, assume the figure of a cube, the regular octohedron, or some form allied to it.

6. *In their fusibility.* All are solid, at the common temperature of the atmosphere, except mercury, which is solid at −40° Fahr. Mercury, potassium, sodium, cadmium, tin, bismuth, lead, tellurium, antimony, and probably arsenic, are fusible below red heat. The rest require a higher temperature to fuse them; and some of these, such as platinum, cerium, rhodium, and columbium, require the heat of the compound blowpipe to render them liquid.

7. *In volatility.* Cadmium, mercury, arsenic, tellurium, potassium, sodium, and zinc, are volatilized by heat. Most of the others may be exposed to the most intense heat of a smith's forge, without being converted into vapor.

8. *In their affinity for the other simple substances.* Metals generally have an extensive range of affinity; hence they are rarely found in the earth in their simple or pure state, but are generally combined with other bodies, especially with

oxygen and sulphur, in which state they are said to be *mineralized.*

It is a remarkable fact, that they are not disposed to combine with compound bodies   They combine with each other, and with other simple substances, generally in a few *definite proportions.*

They all combine with oxygen, though with different degrees of energy.   Iron and copper are slowly oxidized at common temperatures, while gold will sustain the most intense heat of furnaces without oxidation.   Potassium and sodium will even decompose water, to obtain the oxygen, the moment they come in contact with it.   In all these cases they produce the phenomena of combustion.   Hence they are said to be *combustible.*   With chlorine, iodine, bromine, etc., they combine with more or less energy, giving rise to the same phenomena.   Some unite with oxygen in one proportion only, but most have two or three degrees of oxidation.   The protoxides form the strong *alkaline bases,* combining with acids to form neutral salts.   They are gene rally the only *salifiable bases.*

The binoxides and peroxides, with a few exceptions, are either neutral or acid in their properties ; the acids generally contain the largest amount of oxygen.

When metals unite with chlorine, iodine, bromine, sulphur, &c., the compounds they form are similar in composition to the oxides of the same metals, so that if we know the composition of the one, we can infer that of the other : thus the two oxides of iron unite in the proportions of FeO and Fe^2O^3 ; the sulphurets and chlorides of iron have a similar composition, FeS, Fe^2S^3—$FeCl$, and Fe^2Cl^3.   To this rule there are a few exceptions.   Sulphur sometimes forms a greater number of compounds with a metal than oxygen ; in which case there can be no corresponding oxides.   This is the case with iron, arsenic, potassium, and a few others.   The chlorides of any metal generally correspond in number with its oxides, never greater and in but few cases less in number.

Among the non-metallic bodies, hydrogen alone forms an oxide, (*water,*) which is capable of uniting with acids, and in this respect it bears a striking analogy to the metals. Hydrogen has been regarded as a metal in the gaseous state.

Many metals form acids with oxygen, as well as oxides ; only three, arsenic, antimony, and tellurium, are incapable of forming *protoxides*, but are distinguished for forming strong oxygen acids.

Oxides sometimes combine with each other, and form definite compounds. The action of the metals upon the simple non-metallic substances will be noticed in their proper place.

Metallic oxides may be reduced to the metallic state by heat, by the united agency of heat and combustible matter, by voltaic electricity, and by the action of the deoxidizing agents on metallic solutions.

When the hydracids, such as hydrochloric, hydrobromic, hydriodic, and hydrofluoric acids are poured upon the metals, their action is different from that of oxygen acids. In the latter case, the metal becomes oxidized, and the acid unites to form a *ternary* compound, or salt ; but in the former case, the acid is decomposed, its hydrogen escapes, and the chlorine, bromine, iodine, and fluorine combine directly with the metal, forming a *binary* compound. Thus hydrochloric acid poured on zinc, will form chloride of zinc, $ZnCl$, or on sodium will form chloride of sodium, (common salt.)

It should be observed here, that most chemists place such compounds among the salts, dividing the latter into two classes ; thus extending the definition of a salt so as to include such compounds (see page 298). The reason for such a classification is, that though they resemble oxides in composition, they are more nearly allied to salts, in their properties. Thus common salt, the substance from which we derive the name of *salts*, is a chloride of sodium, a binary compound, but in its properties it resembles the ternary compounds or oxygen salts.

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It was formerly supposed that when common salt and other compounds having a similar constitution, sometimes called *haloid salts*,—that is, after the form of *sea-salt*,—were dissolved in water, they formed a compound precisely similar to an oxygen salt. For example, when common salt was dissolved in water, it was supposed that the oxygen of the water united with the sodium, forming an oxide, and its hydrogen united with the chlorine, and formed hydrochloric acid, these combined and formed *hydrochlorate* of *soda*. But no such compound exists.

The water is not decomposed, and hence the hydracids do not form any compounds similar to the oxygen acids, unless it be in the case of their action on ammonia, which more properly belongs to the subject of organic chemistry. The true explanation of the action of the hydracids on the metallic oxides has been given above. But perhaps the changes which take place may be more clearly exhibited by means of a diagram; thus, take hydrochloric acid and soda.

Hydrochloric	{ Chlorine	Water.
acid	{ Hydrogen	
Soda	{ Sodium	Chloride of
	{ Oxygen	sodium.
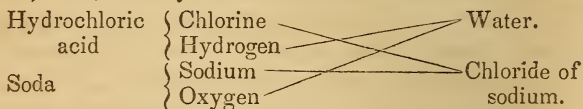
Thus it appears that the action of a hydrogen acid on a metallic oxide results in the formation of a binary compound, one of which is water and the other is an *ide* of the metal, similar in constitution to the oxides and the sulphurets.

If therefore we class the chlorides, iodides, &c., of the metals with the oxygen salts, the reason for it cannot be found in their constitution, but simply because they agree in physical properties with true salts; we have therefore concluded to retain them among the *ides* of the metals.

The number of metals is generally reckoned at 42, to which three or four have lately been added, but are of very rare occurrence. Most of the metals are known only to chemists. Many of them have scarcely been examined, except by those who discovered them. The following table contains their names, with the date at which they were discovered, and the names of the chemists by whom the discovery was made :—

Names of Metals.	Authors of the Discovery.	Dates of the Discovery.
Gold Silver Iron Copper Mercury Lead Tin	Known to the Ancients.	
Antimony	Described by Basil Valentine .	1490.
Bismuth	Described by Agricola . .	1530.
Zinc	First mentioned by Paracelsus	16th century.
Arsenic Cobalt	Brandt	1733.
Platinum	Wood, assay-master, Jamaica	1741.
Nickel	Cronstedt	1751.
Manganese	Gahn and Scheele . . .	1774.
Tungsten	D'Elhuyart	1781.
Tellurium	Müller	1782.
Molybdenum	Hielm	1782.
Uranium	Klaproth	1789.
Titanium	Gregor	1791.
Chromium	Vauquelin	797.
Columbium	Hatchett	1802.
Palladium Rhodium	Wollaston	1803.
Iridium	Descotils and Smithson Tennant	1803
Osmium	Smithson Tennant . . .	1803.
Cerium	Hisinger and Berzelius . .	1804.
Potassium Sodium Barium Strontium Calcium	Davy	1807.
Cadmium	Stromeyer . .	1818.
Lithium	Arfwedson	1818.
Zirconium	Berzelius . . .	1824.
Aluminium Glucinium Yttrium	Wöhler	1828.
Thorium	Berzelius	1829.
Magnesium	Bussy	1829.
Vanadium	Sefström	1830.
Latanium	Mosander	1839.

It will be found convenient, in studying the properties of the metals, to arrange them in groups. They may be divided, for this purpose, into the two following orders:—

Order I. Metals which, by oxidation, yield alkalies or earths

Order II. Metals, the oxides of which are neither alkalies nor earths.

ORDER I. includes twelve metals, which may be arranged in three sections or divisions : —

Section 1. Metallic bases of the alkalies. These are,

Potassium,   Sodium,   Lithium.

Section 2. Metallic bases of the alkaline earths. These are,

Barium,   Strontium,   Calcium,   Magnesium.

Section 3. Metallic bases of the earths. These are,

Aluminium,   Yttrium,   Zirconium.
Glucinium,   Thorium,

ORDER II. The metals belonging to this order are arranged in the three following sections : —

Section 1. Metals which decompose water at a red heat · ---

Manganese,   Cadmium,   Cobalt,
Iron,   Tin,   Nickel.
Zinc,

Section 2. Metals which do not decompose water at any temperature, and the oxides of which are not reduced to the metallic state by the sole action of heat : —

Arsenic,   Columbium,   Titanium,
Chromium,   Antimony,   Tellurium,
Vanadium,   Uranium,   Copper,
Molybdenum,   Cerium,   Lead.
Tungsten,   Bismuth,

Section 3. Metals, the oxides of which are decomposed by a red heat : —

Mercury,   Platinum,   Osmium,
Silver,   Palladium,   Iridium.
Gold,   Rhodium,   T.

SECT. 1. METALLIC BASES OF THE ALKALIES.

POTASSIUM. Symb. K. Equiv. 39.15. Sp. gr. 0.865.

History. The discovery of *potassium*, or *kalium*, as it was at first called, was made by Davy, in 1807, and constitutes an era in the history of chemical philosophy, as it led

to the discovery of the metallic bases of the other alkalies and alkaline earths, and to the decomposition of a variety of compounds which were before regarded as simple bodies.

The discovery was made by subjecting the *hydrate* of potassa to the influence of a powerful galvanic battery of 200 pair of plates; oxygen appeared at the positive, and a small globule of a metallic lustre at the negative pole, which proved to be the metal *potassium.*

Process. Potassium is obtained in small quantities by galvanism; but the best method is that of M. Curaudau, which was improved by Brunner, and modified by Wöhler. The substance employed is carbonate of potassa, prepared by heating cream of tartar to redness in a covered crucible. This is raised to a high temperature, in connection with charcoal, in an iron retort; the oxygen of the potassa combines with the carbon, and the potassium distils over.

Properties. Potassium, at common temperatures, is a soft, malleable solid, yielding to the pressure of the fingers, like wax; of a decidedly metallic lustre; similar to mercury in color; somewhat fluid at 70°, and perfectly liquid at 150°; cooled to 32°, it is *brittle;* sublimes at a low red heat in close vessels secluded from the air; a good conductor of electricity and of caloric.

But its most remarkable property is its affinity for oxygen. It oxidizes rapidly in the air or oxygen gas; but if a piece be thrown upon water, it will decompose it rapidly, disengaging so much heat that the potassium takes fire, and burns with a beautiful *purple flame.* The evolution of hydrogen gas causes it to move about upon the surface of the water, and, combining with the potassium, augments the brilliancy of the combustion.

Exp. Invert a wine-glass filled with water in the cistern, and introduce a small piece of potassium; it will rapidly decompose the water, and the escape of hydrogen gas will displace the water in the glass. This gas may then be ignited.

Exp. Heat a small piece of iron, and drop upon it potassium; then invert over it a jar of oxygen gas.

Exp. Drop a piece upon ice, and it will instantly inflame; a deep hole is made in the ice, containing pure potassa with water.

Exp. To show that the action of potassium upon water produces an

alkali, drop a small piece into a bottle containing vegetable infusion and it will instantly *turn it green.* In consequence of its affinity for oxygen, it must be kept under naphtha, or the essential oil of copaiba.

Remark. In the description of the metallic compounds, the abbreviations *symb.* and *equiv.* will be omitted, and the symbols and equivalents placed immediately after the names of the substances.

Compounds of Potassium.

Protoxide of Potassium, (K + O. 47.15,) commonly called *potash,* or *potassa,* is always formed when potassium is put into water, or burned in oxygen gas. It exists in nature in the minerals, feldspar, mica, and several others; in all vegetables, from which it is obtained by leaching their ashes, and boiling the lye.

Properties. The pure potassa is a white solid, very caustic, possessing *powerful alkaline properties ;* easily fused by heat, but not decomposed ; deliquesces in the air, and hence is very soluble in water, forming with it a *hydrate,* which retains the water under the *most intense heat.*

The Hydrate of Potassa contains 1 eq. of water, and is similar in its properties to the *anhydrous* potassa. The aqueous solution of the hydrate, called *aqua potassæ,* may be prepared by decomposing the carbonate with lime.

Exp. Put quick lime, with half its weight of carbonate of potassa dissolved in 8 or 10 times its weight of water, into a clean iron vessel, and put it into well-stopped bottles, to exclude the air, from which it will absorb carbonic acid. If the solution is pure, it will not effervesce with acids.

The *solid hydrate* may be made from this by evaporation, and further purification by alcohol, which dissolves only the pure hydrate ; the alcohol is then driven off by heat. This was formerly called *lapis causticus,* but the colleges of Edinburgh and London called it *potassa fusa.*

Tests. Potassa may be distinguished from all other substances by the precipitates thrown down from its salts in solution.

Exp. 1. Take any of the salts of potassa in solution, and pour into them tartaric acid ; a white precipitate will be thrown down — the bi-tartrate of potassa.

Exp. 2. Chloride of platinum will give a *yellow*, and when dissolved in alcohol, a *pale yellow*, precipitate.

Exp. 3. Alcoholic solution of carbazotic acid throws down yellow crystals of carbazotate of potassa. This is the most delicate test.

Uses. Potassa, being a very powerful alkali, is of great use in chemistry and the arts. It forms the bases of most soaps; the *crude potash* is employed for making glass.

Owing to its affinity for carbonic acid, it is used for abstracting that substance from gaseous mixtures, and for depriving them of moisture.

Teroxide of Potassium (K + 3O. 63.15) is formed when potassium is burned in the air or oxygen gas. It is an orange-colored substance, *caustic*, alkaline, heavier than potassium, and decomposed by galvanism and by water; by the latter it is resolved into the protoxide and oxygen; fuses below a red heat, in which state it burns vividly, in contact with combustibles.

Chloride of Potassium (K + Cl. 74.57) was long known by the names '*febrifuge salt of Sylvius,*' '*regenerated sea-salt.*'

It may be formed by the spontaneous combustion of potassium in chlorine, or by dissolving potassium in hydrochloric acid, and evaporating the solution slowly to dryness.

Properties. It occurs in *cubic crystals*, colorless, of a *saline* and *bitter taste*, insoluble in alcohol, and soluble in 3 parts of water at 60°, and in less at 212° Fahr.

Iodide of Potassium (K + I. 165.45) is formed by heating potassium with iodine, or by heating the iodate of potassa.

Properties. Fuses readily, and is converted into vapor below a red heat; deliquesces in air; very soluble in water; dissolves in strong alcohol, and, by evaporating the solution, yields *colorless cubic crystals* of iodide of potassium.

Bromide of Potassium, (K + Br. 117.55,) formed by a process similar to that for the iodide, (using bromine instead of iodine,) and has similar properties; very *soluble* in water, which, by evaporation, yields anhydrous cubic crystals; easily fused, and decrepitates, like sea-salt, when heated.

Exp. Put a small piece of potassium into a wine-glass containing a few drops of bromine; the two bodies will combine with explosive violence.

Fluoride of Potassium (K + F. 57.83) is formed by

merely saturating hydrofluoric acid with carbonate of potassa, evaporating to dryness, and igniting to expel excess of acid.

Properties. It has a sharp, saline taste, alkaline to the test papers, soluble in water, and the solution acts on glass. It is obtained from its solution, by evaporation at 100°, in cubes or rectangular *four-sided prisms, very deliquescent.*

Hydruret of Potassium. Discovered by Gay Lussac and Thenard, and may be formed by heating potassium in hydrogen gas. It is a gray solid, readily decomposed by heat or water. Gaseous hyduret of potassium is produced when hydrate of potassa is decomposed by iron, at a white heat. It is a colorless gas, and burns spontaneously in air or oxygen gas, but loses its inflammability by standing over mercury.

Nituret of Potassium consists, according to Thenard, of 100 parts of potassium to 11.728 of nitrogen, and is formed by heating potassium with ammoniacal gas.

Sulphurets of Potassium. These are five in number, dependent on the quantity of sulphur.

The *Protosulphuret of Potassium* (K + S. 55.25) is prepared by burning potassium and sulphur in the air, or by decomposing the sulphate of potassa by charcoal or hydrogen gas at a red heat. Mixed with powdered charcoal, it *kindles spontaneously.*

The *Bisulphuret of Potassium* (K + 2S. 71.35) is formed by exposing a saturated alcoholic solution of hydrosulphate of sulphuret of potassium, until a pellicle begins to form, and then evaporating to dryness.

The *Tersulphuret of Potassium* (K + 3S. 87.45) is formed by heating carbonate of potassa to low redness, with half its weight of sulphur, known by the name of *liver of sulphur.*

The *Quadrosulphuret of Potassium* (K + 4S. 103.55) is prepared by transmitting the vapor of *bisulphuret of carbon* over sulphate of potassa at a red heat, until carbonic acid gas ceases to be disengaged.

The *Quintosulphuret of Potassium* (K + 5S. 119.65) is formed by fusing carbonate of potassa with its own weight of sulphur.

The properties of the four last compounds are similar; they are deliquescent, have a sulphureous odor, and are soluble in water. A solution of the last dissolves sulphur, and renders it probable that other compounds may be formed.

Phosphurets of Potassium. Several compounds exist, but their composition is unknown. Obtained by burning potassium in phosphuret of hydrogen.

Seleniuret of Potassium. Formed by fusing potassium and selenium together. They combine with explosive violence,

and a crystalline, fusible compound results, of an iron-gray color, and metallic lustre.

Cyanide of potassium ($K + Cy$. 65.54) is formed by heating to red ness the *anhydrous ferrocyanide of potassium* in an iron bottle.

Properties. Easily fused, and crystallizes in colorless cubes; pungent and alkaline to the taste, and poisonous, acting like the hydrocyanic acid; deliquescent, and very soluble in water; used sometimes as a medicine.

Sulphocyanide of Potassium $K + CyS^2$. 97.74.

SODIUM. Symb. Na. Equiv. 23.3. Sp. gr. 0.972.

Sodium was discovered by Sir H. Davy, in 1807, a few days after the discovery of *potassium,* and by a similar process.

Process. It may be obtained in small quantities by galvanism. But the process of obtaining it from soda, now generally practised, is precisely the same as that for potassium.

Properties. Sodium resembles potassium in many of its properties. It is a white, opaque solid, of a metallic lustre, resembling silver; yields readily to the pressure of the fingers, and may be formed readily into leaves; fuses at 200° Fahr., and is vaporized at a red heat.

Sodium has so strong an affinity for oxygen that it rapidly decomposes water to obtain it, but does not inflame unless the water is heated, in which case it throws out beautiful scintillations, often with *violent combustion.*

Exp. Thrown upon water, it moves about upon its surface, having the appearance of a silver ball, gradually growing less till the whole disappears.

Exp. Drop a piece of sodium into a test-tube partly filled with warm water; it will soon burst into a flame, and often explode with violence.

It oxidizes in the air or oxygen gas, but not so rapidly as po assium; hence, like that metal, it must be kept under naphtha. The product of its combustion in oxygen, and its action upon water, is *soda,* the alkaline properties of which may be tested by dropping a small piece of the metal into a bottle containing a vegetable infusion.

Compounds of Sodium.

Protoxide of Sodium, (NaO. 31.3,) commonly called *soda* and by the Germans *natron*, is formed by the oxidation of sodium in air or water.

Properties. A gray solid, similar to potassa, which it resembles in most of its properties; very caustic, and has powerful alkaline properties.

The hydrate has 1 eq. of water, and is easily fused. In other respects, it is similar to the *anhydrous* soda; absorbs carbonic acid from the air, and passes into carbonate. It is distinguished from other alkaline bases by yielding, with sulphuric acid, the well-known substance called *Glau ber's salts*. All its salts are soluble in water, and are not precipitated by any re-agent, and give a rich color to the blowpipe flame. The soda of commerce is generally a carbonate prepared from the ashes of marine plants, in the same manner as potash is from land plants.

Uses. Employed for the manufacture of hard soaps, and for culinary and medical purposes.

Sesquioxide of Sodium ($2Na + 3O$. 70.6) is formed when sodium is heated to redness, in excess of oxygen gas. It has an *orange color*, but no *acid* or *alkaline* properties. It is resolved by water into soda and oxygen.

Chloride of Sodium. $Na + Cl$. 58.72. This substance is formed by burning sodium in chlorine gas, or by saturating soda with hydrochloric acid, and evaporating to dryness. It is a very abundant natural product, under the name of *rock salt*. It exists in sea-water and salt-springs, from which it is obtained by evaporation. Great quantities are manufactured on the sea-coast of New England, and at Salina, N. Y. The water at the latter place, according to the analysis of Beck, contains one seventh of its weight of pure dry chloride of sodium.

Properties. A well-known solid, crystallizing in *regular cubes*, and by sudden evaporation, in *hollow, quadrangular pyramids*. It is dissolved in $2\frac{1}{2}$ times its weight of water, as

60° Fahr.; gradually fuses when heated, and decrepitates when thrown into the fire; is decomposed by carbonate of potassa and nitric acid. The different kinds of salt, such as stored, fishery, bay, &c., arise from its different forms, and not from a difference of chemical constitution. It contains small quantities of sulphate of magnesia and lime, and chloride of magnesium.

Uses. The utility of salt depends on its property of preserving animal and vegetable substances from putrescence.

Iodide of Sodium, (Na + I. 149.6,) prepared in the same manner as the iodide of potassium, exists in sea-water, salt-springs, and in the residual liquor from kelp.

Bromide of Sodium, (Na + Br. 101.7,) analogous to sea-salt, exists in sea-water and salt-springs, and crystallizes in cubes.

Fluoride of Sodium (Na + F. 41.98) is formed by neutralizing hydrofluoric acid with soda; crystallizes in cubes, and when carbonate of soda is present, in octohedrons. Nearly insoluble in alcohol; soluble in twenty-five times its weight of water; attacks glass vessels when evaporated in them — *a property which is common to most of the compounds of fluorine.*

Sulphuret of Sodium (Na + S. 39.4) is obtained in the same manner as the protosulphuret of potassa, and has similar properties.

The Cyanide of Sodium (Na + Cy. 49.69) and the *Sulphocyanide of Sodium* (Na + CyS². 81.89) are similar to the corresponding compounds of potassium.

Chloride of Soda is prepared by passing a current of chlorine gas into a cold solution of caustic soda. This liquor has received the name of *Labarraque's Disinfecting Soda Liquid*, and is used extensively in the arts, and in medicine.

Properties. A liquid of a pale yellow color, with slight odor of chlorine. Its taste is sharp, saline, and but little alkaline; reddens turmeric, and then bleaches it. When evaporated, it yields damp crystals; decomposed by exposure to the air.

Uses. It may be used for all the purposes of bleaching to which chlorine was formerly applied, in medicine to purify apartments, dissecting-rooms, for destroying the fetor of ulcers, and for removing the offensive odors of sewers, drains, and all kinds of animal putrescence.

Alloy of Sodium and Potassium. 10 parts of potassium,

and 1 of sodium, form an alloy which is liquid at zero, Fahr and is lighter than naphtha, or rectified petroleum.

LITHIUM.　Symb. L.　Equiv. 6.44.

This substance was obtained by Davy, by means of galvanism, as a *white-colored metal,* like sodium ; but it oxidized so rapidly that he was unable to examine its properties

Compounds of Lithium.

Protoxide of Lithium, Lithia, (L + O. 14.44,) was discovered, in 1818, by M. Arfwedson, in the mineral petalite ; it exists in *spodumene, lepidolite,* and several varieties of mica.

Process. One part of petalite to two of fluor-spar are finely pulverized, and the mixture heated with four times its weight of sulphuric acid, till the acid vapors are disengaged. Sulphate of lithia and alumina are formed. These salts are then dissolved in water, and boiled with pure ammonia, to precipitate the alumina ; filter and evaporate to dryness, and then expel the sulphate of ammonia by a red heat. The result is a pure sulphate of lithia, which must be decomposed by acetate of baryta, and the acetate, by a red heat, is converted into the carbonate, and this reduced to the *caustic hydrate,* by boiling it with lime.

Properties. Similar to potassa and soda in its alkalinity and chemical relations. It is distinguished from them by its greater *neutralizing power ;* when exposed to the air, it absorbs carbonic acid, and becomes opaque.

Chloride of Lithium (L + Cl. 41.86) is obtained by dissolving lithia in hydrochloric acid, evaporating to dryness, and fusing the residue.

Properties. A white, semi-transparent solid, and, like the chlorides of potassium and sodium, forms, by evaporation, colorless, anhydrous, cubic crystals, which differ from those chlorides in being very deliquescent, dissolving freely in water and alcohol, and tinging the flame of alcohol red.

Fluoride of Lithium, (L + F. 25.12,) prepared by dissolving lithia in hydrofluoric acid, and is a very fusible solid.

Sect. 2 Metallic Bases of the Alkaline Earths.

BARIUM. Symb. Ba. Equiv. 68.7.

Barium was discovered by Davy, in 1808.

Process. The process consisted in forming the carbonate of baryta into a paste with water, placing a globule of mercury in a small hollow made in its surface, and laying the paste on a platinum tray, which communicated with the positive pole of a galvanic battery of 100 double plates, while the negative wire was in contact with the mercury. The baryta was decomposed, and its barium entered into combination with the mercury. This amalgam was heated in a vessel free from air, by which means the mercury was expelled, and the barium obtained in a pure state. — T.

Properties. The metal, thus obtained, has a dark gray color, with a lustre inferior to cast iron. It is much heavier than water; it even sinks in sulphuric acid. Its attraction for oxygen is scarcely less than that of the preceding metals; is converted into baryta by exposure to the air; decomposes water with effervescence, from the escape of hydrogen gas. It has been obtained but in small quantities, and its properties are not accurately defined.

Compounds of Barium.

Protoxide of Barium, or *Baryta,* (Ba + O. 76.7,) was discovered by Scheele, in 1774, and called *barytes* or *baryta,* from the great density of its compounds.

Process. It is the sole product of the oxidation of barium in the air and in water. It is also obtained by exposing the nitrate of baryta to a red heat, or the carbonate, mixed with charcoal, to an intense white heat.

Properties. Baryta is a gray powder, (sp. gr. 4,) very difficult of fusion; has a sharp, caustic, alkaline taste, with other alkaline properties; insoluble in alcohol, but has a strong affinity for water, and slacks like lime, but with the evolution of more intense heat, and is converted into a white, bulky *hydrate,* which fuses at a red heat, but cannot be

deprived of its water at the highest temperature of a smith's forge. A saturated solution yields, on evaporation, transparent, flattened, prismatic crystals, containing 10 atoms of water to 1 of baryta.

This solution is an excellent test of carbonic acid, or other gaseous mixtures in the atmosphere. The acid gives a milky appearance to the clear solution, due to the solid carbonate of baryta, which is precipitated.

Distinguished by the fact, that all its soluble salts are precipitated by alkaline carbonates, and by the insoluble sulphate, which latter cannot be separated by any other acid.

Binoxide of Barium (Ba + 2O. 84.7) is formed by conducting dry oxygen gas over pure baryta, at a red heat. It is a grayish-white substance, employed by Thenard in obtaining the binoxide of hydrogen.

Chloride of Barium (Ba + Cl. 104.12) is prepared by decomposing a solution of sulphuret of barium with hydrochloric acid, or by conducting chlorine gas over baryta, at a red heat. On concentrating the solution, the chloride crystallizes in flat, four-sided tables, beveled at the edges like crystals of heavy-spar. They consist of 1 eq. of the chloride to 2 of water.

Properties. Pungent and acrid to the taste. The crystals do not change in moist air; but in a very dry air, at 60° they lose their water of crystallization, and are rendered anhydrous at a full red heat; decomposed by sulphuric acid and alkaline carbonates.

Iodide of Barium (Ba + I. 195) is formed by acting on baryta with hydriodic acid, and evaporating the solution. Soluble in water, and forms colorless, needle-shaped crystals.

Bromide of Barium (Ba + Br. 147.1) is prepared by boiling protobromide of iron with moist carbonate of baryta, evaporating the filtered solution, and heating the residue to redness. The product crystallizes, by careful evaporation, in white rhombic prisms, which have a bitter taste, are slightly deliquescent, and soluble in water and alcohol. — T.

Fluoride of Barium (Ba + F. 87.38) is prepared by digesting moist carbonate of baryta in hydrofluoric acid. It is a white powder, soluble in nitric and hydrochloric acids.

Sulphuret of Barium (Ba + S. 84.8) is prepared by passing dry hydrosulphuric acid over pure baryta, at a red heat. It dissolves readily in hot water, and deposits colorless crystals on cooling. It may be employed for obtaining pure baryta by a process described by Turner, 5th ed. p. 308

Cyanide of Barium (Ba + Cy. 95.09) is procured by the action of hydrocyanic acid on baryta. It is slightly soluble in water, has an alkaline reaction, and is decomposed by the carbonic acid of the air.

Sulphocyanide of Barium ·(Ba + CyS². 127.29) is obtained in the same way as the sulphocyanide of potassium. It is very soluble in water, and crystallizes in beautiful needles, slightly deliquescent.

Phosphuret of Barium is formed by heating to redness anhydrous caustic baryta, and throwing into it pieces of phosphorus. It decomposes water, and forms phosphuret of hydrogen.

STRONTIUM. Symb. Sr. Equiv. 43.8.

Strontium was discovered by a process similar to that for *barium*, which it resembles in most of its properties; oxidizes in the air; decomposes water, by which process it is converted into *strontia*.

Compounds of Strontium.

Protoxide of Strontium (Sr + O. 51.8) was discovered by Dr. Hope, in 1792; also by Klaproth.

Process. It was formerly extracted from *strontianite*, (a carbonate of strontia,) found at Strontian, in Scotland; hence its name. It may be prepared from the nitrate or carbonate of strontia, in the same manner as baryta.

Properties. It resembles baryta in most of its properties. A gray substance, pungent and acrid to the taste; slacked with water, it produces intense heat, and is converted into a *hydrate* which fuses readily, but the highest temperature of a blast furnace will not separate the water; soluble in boiling water, and crystallizes on cooling. The solution, like baryta, is an excellent *test* of carbonic acid.

Peroxide of Strontium (Sr + 2O. 59.8) is prepared in the same way as the peroxide of barium, and, like it, is employed to form binoxide of hydrogen; decomposed by dilute acids into strontia and oxygen. It is white, of a brilliant lustre, inodorous, and nearly tasteless.

Chloride of Strontium (Sr + Cl. 79.22) is obtained in a manner precisely similar to the chloride of barium; crys-

tallizes from its solutions in colorless prismatic crystals, which are distinguished from baryta by being soluble in twice their weight of water at 60°, and by the red tinge which it gives to the flame of an alcoholic solution. The anhydrous chloride fuses at a red heat, and yields a white, crystalline, brittle mass on cooling. — T.

Iodide of Strontium (Sr + I. 170.1) is prepared in the same manner as iodide of barium. It is very soluble in water, fuses without decomposition in close vessels, but is resolved into iodine and strontia, by a red heat, in the open air.

Fluoride of Strontium (Sr + F. 62.48) is obtained in the same way as the fluoride of barium. It is a white powder, sparingly soluble.

Protosulphuret of Strontium (Sr + S. 59.9) is similar in its properties, and modes of preparation, to the corresponding compound of barium

CALCIUM.   Symb. Ca. Equiv. 20.5.

Calcium was discovered by Davy, in 1808, by exposing lime to the action of the galvanic battery.

Properties. It is of a whiter color than barium, and is converted into lime by oxidation. Its other properties are unknown.

Compounds of Calcium.

Protoxide of Calcium (Ca + O. 28.5) is generally obtained by burning common limestone (carbonate of lime) in kilns, for three or four days, to expel the carbonic acid. It is then called *lime*, or *quick lime.* The purest lime is prepared from the Iceland spar, or Carrara marble.

Properties. A brittle, grayish-white, earthy solid, of an acrid, caustic, and alkaline taste; sp. gr. 2.3; difficult of fusion, but promotes the fusion of other bodies, and is hence used as a flux in smelting the ores of the metals. It has a strong affinity for water, with which it combines with the disengagement of heat, and forms the hydrate — a bulky, white substance, called *slacked lime.* This parts with its water at a red heat, and is more soluble in cold than in hot water.

Lime Water. This is simply a solution of the hydrate, and possesses similar properties, absorbs carbonic acid from the air, and should therefore be kept in close vessels. It is a

most delicate test of carbonic acid — a property already noticed under carbon.

Uses. The uses of lime are well known for a cement, for plaster, and as an anti-acid in medicine; a substance almost indispensable in every civilized country, and hence the Creator has made it very abundant and widely diffused, (the carbonate forming $\frac{1}{4}$ part of the crust of the globe.)

Peroxide of Calcium (Ca + 2O. 36.5) is similar in properties, and in the mode of preparation, to the peroxide of barium.

Chloride of Calcium (Ca + Cl. 55.92) exists in sea-water and some saline springs, and may be formed by dissolving marble in hydrochloric acid. On evaporation, the solution yields colorless prismatic crystals, which consist of 10 equiv. of water to 1 of the chloride; these are rendered anhydrous by heat, and fuse at a red heat, but absorb the water again from the air, and deliquesce, owing to their strong attraction for water. It is much used for *freezing mixtures* with snow. Soluble in alcohol, with which it forms a definite compound.

Iodide of Calcium (Ca + I. 146.8) is prepared by digesting hydrate of lime with protiodide of iron. It is a white, fusible compound, deliquescent, and very soluble in water; the solution will dissolve a large quantity of iodine, and, on evaporation, yield the *periodide of calcium*, in black prismatic crystals.

Bromide of Calcium (Ca + Br. 98.9) is prepared in the same manner as the iodide, which it resembles in its properties.

Fluoride of Calcium. Ca + F. 39.18. This is an abundant natural product, generally called *fluor-spar* or *Derbyshire spar.* It occurs in beautiful cubic crystals, the primary form of which is an octohedron, used extensively for ornamental purposes, and is justly celebrated for the variety and beauty of its colors; fuses at a red heat, insoluble in water, and is decomposed by sulphuric acid; thrown in coarse powder on hot iron, it emits beautiful phosphorescent light, varying from red to purple and green.

Protosulphuret of Calcium (Ca + S. 36.6) may be prepared by exposing sulphate of lime to a strong heat in a charcoal crucible. It is white, with a reddish tint, and possesses the remarkable property of becoming phosphorescent by exposure to the light. It is the essential ingredient in *Canton's phosphorus.*

11

Bisulphuret of Calcium (Ca + 2S. 52.7) occurs in orange-colored crystals, prepared by boiling 3 parts of slacked lime, 1 of sulphur, and 20 of water, for a few hours, and setting the solution aside in bottles corked tight for several days. When either of the above solutions is boiled with sulphur, the solution contains calcium, with 5 equiv. of sulphur — the *quintosulphuret of calcium*, (Ca + 5S. 101.)

Phosphuret of Calcium (Ca + P. 36.2) is formed by passing the vapor of phosphorus over quick lime, at a low red heat. It is a brown substance, and, when thrown into water, forms, by mutual decomposition, *phosphureted hydrogen, hypophosphorous acid*, and *phosphoric acid*.

Chloride of Lime. Ca + O + Cl. 63.92. This substance, commonly called *oxymuriate of lime*, or *bleaching powder*, is prepared by exposing recently-slacked lime to an atmosphere of chlorine. The gas is rapidly absorbed, and enters into direct combination with the lime, although Dr. Ure thinks that no definite compound is formed.

Properties. A dry, white powder, similar to quick lime, having the odor of chlorine, which it readily yields up when moistened with water; possesses powerful bleaching properties, for which purpose it is extensively used in the arts. The strength of the chloride is estimated by the quantity of indigo which a given portion of the bleaching solution will deprive of its color. Used also in medicine, as a disinfecting agent; it should be kept in every family.

MAGNESIUM. Symb. Mg. Equiv. 12.7.

Magnesium was discovered and obtained in small quantities by Sir H. Davy, by means of galvanism; but M. Bussy, in 1830, obtained it in greater abundance by the action of potassium on chloride of magnesium.

Process. For this purpose, five or six pieces of potassium, of the size of peas, were introduced into a glass tube, the sealed extremity of which was bent into the form of a retort, and upon the potassium were laid fragments of chloride of magnesium; the latter being then heated to near its point of fusion, a lamp was applied to the potassium, and its vapor transmitted through the mass of the heated chloride. Vivid incandescence immediately took place; and, on putting the mass, after cooling, into water, the chloride of potassium, with undecomposed chloride of magnesium, was dissolved, and metallic magnesium subsided. — T.

Properties. A very malleable solid, of a white color, like silver, and of a brilliant, metallic lustre. Dry, air and water do not oxidize it, but moist air does; heated to redness in oxygen gas, it burns vividly, and forms magnesia. In chlorine gas it inflames spontaneously.

Compounds of Magnesium.

Protoxide of Magnesium, ($Mg+O$. 20.7,) commonly known by the name of *magnesia,* is prepared by exposing the carbonate to a strong heat, to expel the carbonic acid.

Properties. A white, infusible powder, of an earthy appearance, without taste or odor; sp. gr. 2.3; very infusible, and sparingly soluble in water, requiring 5142 times its weight at 60°, and 36,000 of boiling water to dissolve it. The product is a hydrate. It changes vegetable infusions slightly, but possesses the properties of an alkali, by forming neutral salts with acids; absorbs water and carbonic acid from the air, and should be kept in close bottles. It exists in nature in serpentine, steatite, magnesite, and in sea-water, in considerable abundance.

Chloride of Magnesium ($Mg+Cl$. 48.12) is prepared by dissolving magnesia in hydrochloric acid, evaporating to dryness, mixing the residue with its own weight of hydrochlorate of ammonia, and projecting the mixture, in successive portions, into a platinum crucible, at a red heat. The ammonia is expelled, and the chloride remains a transparent, colorless mass; very deliquescent, and soluble in water and alcohol.

Iodide of Magnesium ($Mg+I$. 139) is formed by dissolving magnesia in hydriodic acid; known only in solution with water.

Bromide of Magnesium ($Mg+Br$. 91.1) is prepared by dissolving magnesia in hydrobromic acid. It occurs in small acicular crystals, of a sharp taste, very deliquescent and soluble; it is decomposed by a strong heat.

Fluoride of Magnesium ($Mg+F$. 31.38) is formed by digesting magnesia in excess of hydrofluoric acid; it is insoluble, and bears a red heat without decomposition.

Sect. 3.   Metallic Bases of the Earths.

ALUMINIUM.   Symb. Al.   Equiv. 13.7.

Sir H. Davy proved that *alumina* was an oxidized body, and Wöhler succeeded in decomposing it, from which he obtained the pure metal, *aluminium.*

Process.   This metal may be obtained by heating the chloride of aluminium with potassium in a covered platinum or porcelain crucible.   Intense heat is evolved during the process.   After cooling the mass, it is put into water, by which the saline matter is dissolved; hydrogen gas, of an offensive odor, is evolved, and a gray powder subsides. This powder, after being washed in cold water, is pure *aluminium.*

Properties.   Aluminium, as thus prepared, is a gray powder, similar to platinum, but when rubbed in a mortar, exhibits distinctly a *metallic lustre.*   Fuses at a higher temperature than cast iron, and in this state is a conductor of electricity, but a non-conductor when cold.

Exp. Heated in the air to redness, it burns brilliantly, and forms alumina; but when introduced into oxygen gas, at a red heat, it burns with such splendor, that the eye can hardly support the light, and with so much heat, that the resulting alumina is partially fused into yellow fragments, as hard as corundum, which not only scratch, but absolutely cut glass.

Exp. Takes fire in chlorine gas at a red heat, but is not oxidized by water at common temperatures, nor attacked by cold sulphuric and nitric acids; soluble in solutions of potassa and ammonia, and in hot sulphuric, or dilute sulphuric and hydrochloric acids.

Compounds of Aluminium.

Sesquioxide of Aluminium ($2Al + 3O.$ $27.4 + 24 = 51.4$) is the only known oxide of aluminium, and is commonly called *alumina,* or *aluminous earth.*

Natural History.   Alumina is very abundant in nature, being found in every region of the globe, and in rocks of all ages; hence it is one of the principal ingredients in most soils.   The different kinds of clay of which bricks, pipes, and earthen-ware are made, consist mostly of *hydrate of alumina.*

It is also found beautifully crystallized, in some of the most beautiful gems. The *ruby* and the *sapphire* are nearly pure *alumina*

Process. It may be prepared for chemical purposes from alum, which is a *sulphate of alumina and potassa.* Dissolve pure alum in water, and precipitate the alumina by carbonate of ammonia. This, when washed in hot water and filtered, is the *hydrate*, which may be rendered pure by a white heat. An easier process is to expose the sulphate of alumina and ammonia to a strong heat, so as to expel the ammonia and sulphuric acid. M. Gaudin has succeeded in forming rubies, by mixing ammoniacal alum with $\frac{1}{5000}$ part of chromate of potassa, and exposing to a high heat.

Properties. Inodorous, tasteless, and possesses the properties both of an acid and an alkali ; insoluble in water, but has a powerful affinity for it ; when moistened, it forms a ductile mass, which gives it its great utility in the arts. It is a remarkable exception to the law, that heat expands all bodies There are probably several *hydrates of alumina.*

Uses. Used for bricks, and various kinds of pottery.

Sesquichloride of Aluminium (2Al + 3Cl. 133.66) was discovered by Wöhler, by transmitting dry chlorine gas over a mixture of alumina and charcoal, heated to redness. It is of a pale, greenish-yellow color, partially translucent, of a highly crystalline, lamellated texture, somewhat like talc, but without regular crystals. On exposure to the air, it fumes slightly, emitting an odor, like hydrochloric acid gas.

Exp. When thrown into water, it is speedily dissolved with a hissing noise, and so much heat is evolved, that the water, if in small quantities, is brought into a state of brisk ebullition, and forms the *hydrochlorate of alumina.*

Sesquisulphuret of Aluminium (2Al + 3S. 75.7) is prepared by dropping a piece of sulphur on to aluminium, strongly heated. It is a vitrified, semi-metallic substance, of a dark color.

Sesquiphosphuret of Aluminium (2Al + 3P. 74.5) is formed by heating aluminium in contact with the vapor of phosphorus ; it is a blackish-gray, pulverulent mass, which, by friction, acquires a dark gray metallic lustre, and, in the air, has the odor of phosphureted hydrogen.

Sesquiseleniuret of Aluminium (2Al + 3Se. 146.2) is obtained by heating to redness a mixture of selenium and aluminium. It is a black, pulverulent substance, which acquires a metallic lustre when rubbed.

GLUCINIUM. Symb. G. Equiv. 26.5. Sp. gr. 3.

Glucinium was obtained by Wöhler, in 1828, by the action of potassium upon the *chloride* of glucinium. The process is similar to that for obtaining aluminium. It appears in the form of a gray powder, which acquires the metallic lustre by burnishing, and is easily oxidized.

Sesquioxide of Glucinium, or *Glucina*, $(2G + 3O.\ .77,)$ was discovered by Vauquelin, in 1798. It is found only in the minerals *emerald, beryl,* and *euclase.*

Process. It is obtained by exposing beryl in fine powder, with three times its weight of carbonate of potassa, to a strong red heat. The fused mass is dissolved in dilute hydrochloric acid, evaporated to dryness, re-dissolved in acidulated water, and the alumina and glucina are thrown down by ammonia, the precipitate macerated by carbonate of ammonia, which dissolves the glucina, and on boiling the filtered liquor, carbonate of glucina subsides; the carbonic acid is then expelled by a red heat.

Properties. A white powder, without taste or odor, quite insoluble in water. Pure potassa or soda precipitates it from its salts; distinguished from alumina by being precipitated from its solution with carbonate of ammonia, when the solution is boiled.

YTTRIUM. Symb. Y. Equiv. 32.2.

Yttrium was prepared by Wöhler, in 1828, by a process similar to that for obtaining glucinium.

Properties. It has a scaly texture, a grayish-black color, and a perfectly metallic lustre. It is a brittle metal, and burns with splendor in common air, and with still greater brilliancy in oxygen gas. The result of this combustion is the earth *yttria,* which was discovered in 1794, by Gadolin, in a mineral at Ytterby, Sweden. It is of a white color, soluble in sulphuric acid, and combines with sulphur, selenium, and phosphorus. Its salts have a sweetish taste and some of them have an amethystine color

THORIUM. Symb. Th. Equiv. 59.6.

This metal was procured by the action of potassium on the chloride of thorium; decomposition being accompanied by a slight detonation. On washing the mass, thorium is left, in the form of a heavy, metallic powder, of a deep leaden-gray color ; and, when pressed in an agate mortar, it acquires metallic lustre and an iron-gray tint. — T.

Properties. Thorium is not easily oxidized at common temperatures, but burns with great brilliancy in the air. It is not acted upon by alkalies, scarcely at all by nitric, and slowly by sulphuric acid; but is readily dissolved by hydrochloric acid, with the disengagement of hydrogen gas.

Protoxide of Thorium, or *Thorina*, (ThO. 67.6,) was discovered by Berzelius, in 1828, in a rare mineral from Norway, called *thorite.* It is a white, earthy substance, soluble in none of the acids, except the sulphuric, and is precipitated from its solutions by the caustic alkalies as a *hydrate*, in which state it absorbs carbonic acid from the atmosphere, and dissolves in acids.

It is distinguished from alumina and glucina, by its insolubility in pure potassa, and from yttria, by forming with sulphate of potassa a double salt, insoluble in a cold, saturated solution of sulphate of potassa.

ZIRCONIUM. Symb. Zr. Equiv. 33.7.

Zirconium was discovered by Berzelius, in 1824.

Process. It is obtained by heating the double fluoride of zirconia and potassa, carefully dried and mixed with potassium, in a glass or iron retort. The mass is then washed in hot water, and digested for some time in hydrochloric acid.

Properties. This substance exists in the form of a black powder. It may be pressed out into thin, shining scales, but its particles adhere very slightly. It is a non-conductor of electricity. It takes fire, when heated in the open air, at a temperature below a red heat; the product is *zirconia.*

Sesquioxide of Zirconium, or *Zirconia*, (2Zr + 3O. 91.4,) was discovered by Klaproth, in 1789, from the Zircon, or Jargon, of Ceylon.

17 parts of this substance, finely pulverized, and mixed with 21 of litharge, may be fused, and a glass obtained, soluble in acids, from which the zirconia is derived; or it can be formed directly by the combustion of the metal in oxygen or common air.

Properties. A fine, white powder, inodorous and taste-less; sp. gr. 4 ; exposed to a strong heat, it fuses, assuming a light gray color ; when cool, it is so hard as to strike fire with steel, and to scratch quartz crystal.

ORDER II. METALS, THE OXIDES OF WHICH ARE NEITHER ALKALIES NOR EARTHS.

SECT. 1. *Metals which decompose Water at a red Heat*

MANGANESE. Symb. Mn. Eq. 27.7. Sp. gr. 8.013.

History. In 1774, Scheele described the black oxide of manganese as " a peculiar earth." Gahn subsequently discovered that it contained a new metal, to which he gave the name of *magnesium*, a term applied afterwards to the metallic base of magnesia ; and for which the words *manganesium* and *manganium* have been substituted. The metal is not found in the native or uncombined state, but its oxides are very abundant.

Process. Make a paste with finely-pulverized oxide of manganese and oil, and expose it to the heat of a smith's forge, in a Hessian crucible, lined with charcoal, for the space of two hours.

Properties. A hard, brittle metal, of a grayish-white color, and granular texture; *very infusible;* not attracted by the magnet, except when it contains iron ; soon tarnishes on exposure to the air, and absorbs oxygen rapidly when heated to redness. Decomposes water slowly at common temperatures, but rapidly at a red heat.

Compounds of Manganese.

Protoxide of Manganese ($Mn + O$. 35.7) may be formed, as shown by Berthier, by exposing the peroxide, sesquioxide or red oxide of manganese, to the combined agency of char-

coal, and a white heat; or by exposing either of the oxides, contained in a glass tube, to a current of hydrogen gas, at an elevated temperature.

Properties. When pure, it is of a light green, or mountain-green color, undergoing little if any change in the open air, but oxidizes rapidly at 600° Fahr., and is instantly converted into the red oxide, at a low red heat, and sometimes takes fire. It is the salifiable base of the metal, and is contained in all its salts; hence its strong affinity for acids.

Sesquioxide of Manganese (2Mn + 3O, or Mn + 1½O. 79.4) occurs nearly pure in nature, and may be formed by exposing the peroxide to a red heat. It is the chief residue of the usual process of obtaining oxygen gas, but it is difficult to regulate the heat so as to obtain it in a pure state.

Properties. The color is brown or black, according to the source from which it is obtained; unites with nitric and sulphuric acids, and is converted, by exposure to the air, into the peroxide.

Peroxide of Manganese. Mn + 2O. 43.7. This is a well-known native product, commonly called *black oxide of manganese.*

Properties. It occurs generally in masses, of an earthy appearance, and black color, mixed with other substances; but it is frequently found in small prismatic crystals. It is not affected by exposure to the air or water, but yields oxygen when heated to redness, and is the substance most generally employed for that purpose, (see page 130;) does not unite with acids or alkalies.

Uses. Employed in the arts for coloring glass, in preparing chlorine gas, and in forming the salts of manganese.

Red Oxide of Manganese. 3Mn + 4O. 115.1. This is identical with the *oxidum manganoso-manganium* of Arfwedson, and occurs as a natural product. It may be formed artificially by exposing the peroxide or sesquioxide to a white heat.

Properties. Color, when finely rubbed, is nearly black when warm, and brownish-red when cold. It is permanent in the air at all temperatures, dissolves in small quantities by cold sulphuric acid, and more rapidly by the aid of chlorine;

11*

the solution has an amethystine tint. **It is the cause of the rich color of the amethyst.**

Varvicite. 4Mn + 7O. 166.8. Sp. gr. 4.531. Known only as a natural production, and first noticed by Mr. Phillips among some ores of manganese, found at Hartshill in Warwickshire. It resembles the peroxide in color, for which it was first mistaken, but may be distinguished from it by its stronger lustre, greater hardness, more lamellated texture, and by yielding water when heated to redness. It is probably, like the red oxide, a compound of two oxides, consisting of 2 equivalents of the peroxide, and 1 of the sesquioxide of manganese, with 1 of water. — T.

Manganic Acid. Mn + 3O. 51.7. When peroxide of manganese is mixed with equal weights of nitre, or carbonate of potassa, and heated to redness, it fuses, and a green-colored mass is formed, known by the name of *mineral chameleon*, from the property of its solution to pass through several shades of color.

Exp. On the addition of cold water, a green solution is formed, which soon becomes *blue, purple, and red ;* and ultimately a brown, flocculent matter — hydrated peroxide of manganese — subsides. — T.

Theory. These changes are owing to the formation of manganate of potassa, of a green color, which passes to the permanganate of potassa, which is red, the blue and purple being due to a mixture of these compounds; but the manganic acid has not been obtained in a separate state, owing to its ready decomposition.

Permanganic Acid. 2Mn + 7O. 111.4. This acid is more permanent, though easily decomposed, even by contact with paper or linen in filtering. It may be obtained from the permanganate of baryta, by sulphuric acid.

Properties. Color red; decomposed by water at 86°; coloring matter is bleached by it, but particles of organic matter floating in the air decompose it rapidly.

Protochloride of Manganese (Mn + Cl. 63.12) is prepared by evaporating a solution of the chloride to dryness, and heating it to redness in a glass tube, while a current of hydrochloric acid gas is transmitted through it; fuses at a red heat, and forms a pink-colored lamellated mass on cooling; deliquescent, and very soluble in water. — T.

Perchloride of Manganese (2Mn + 7Cl. 303.34) was discovered by Dumas, and formed by putting a solution of permanganic into sulphuric acid, and adding fused sea-salt.

Properties. When first formed, it is a greenish-colored vapor ; but by passing it through a glass tube cooled to −5°,

it condenses into a greenish-brown liquid, decomposed instantly by water.

Perfluoride of Manganese ($2Mn + 7F$. 186.16) was discovered by Dumas and Wöhler. Prepared by mixing the mineral chameleon with half its weight of fluor-spar in a platinum vessel, and decomposing the mixture with fuming sulphuric acid.

Properties. A yellowish-green gas, or vapor, which acquires a beautiful purple-red color when mixed with air; freely absorbed by water, giving to the solution the same red tint; acts on glass with the formation of fluosilicic acid gas, and the deposition of a brown matter, which acquires a deep purple-red tint by the addition of water.

Protosulphuret of Manganese ($Mn + S$. 43.8) is found native in Cornwall, England, and may be formed by igniting the sulphate with one sixth of its weight of charcoal, in powder.

Cyanide of Manganese. $Mn + Cy$. $27.7 + 26.39 = 54.09$, equiv.

Phosphuret and Carburet of Manganese may be obtained by heating the metal in contact with phosphorus or carbon.

Alloys of Manganese. Manganese unites with several of the metals, forming alloys of little importance.

IRON. Symb. Fe. Equiv. 28. Sp. gr. 7.78.

History. Iron is decidedly the most important and useful of the metals. It appears essential to a state of civilization; hence it is the most abundant, and widely diffused throughout different parts of the earth. Hence, too, it seems to have been made known to the first inhabitants of the earth, and used in all ages where men have emerged even to the state of barbarians. It was formerly called *Mars.*

Natural History. Iron is rarely found pure in nature Even meteoric iron is alloyed with cobalt and nickel; but its oxides are very abundant. In combination with oxygen and sulphur, it is so widely diffused, that few minerals can be found that do not contain traces of it. It enters also into plants and animals. The ores of iron are the red oxides, including red and brown hematite, the black oxide, or magnetic iron ore, and the carbonate of the protoxide, either pure or in the form of clay iron ore.

Process. The extraction of the iron from the ores is ef-

fected by subjecting them, after being roasted and reduced to
a coarse powder, to the action of charcoal, lime, and caloric;
this is the cast iron, which contains some impurities, es-
pecially carbon. The malleable or wrought iron is prepared
from this, by continuing the process until the carbonaceous
matter is burned out; it then becomes solid again, and is
put under a roller or hammer and drawn out into bars.
Steel is the wrought iron combined with carbon. The best
wrought-iron bars are surrounded by dry charcoal and heated
to a high temperature.

Properties. Iron has a peculiar gray color, and strong
metallic lustre, which is brightened by polishing, of which it
is capable of receiving a higher degree than any other metal.
It is less ductile and malleable than some others, but the most
tenacious of all; hence it may be drawn out into fine wire,
but not into thin leaves. Its texture is fibrous, and when
heated, is soft, and possesses the property of being welded to
other heated iron. When cooled suddenly, it is brittle, but
may be rendered malleable again by heat; it is very infusible,
and when combined with carbon, very hard. In this state,
it is capable of being made permanently magnetic: it is the
great repository of natural magnets, and the only substance,
save cobalt and nickel, which possesses magnetic properties.

Its uses in the arts are well known.

Compounds of Iron.

Protoxide of Iron. $Fe + O$. 36. The existence of this ox-
ide was first inferred by Gay Lussac; but Stromeyer obtained
it in an insulated form, by transmitting dry hydrogen gas
over the proxide at a low temperature. It may also be
precipitated from its salts as a white hydrate by pure alkalies,
as a carburet by alkaline carbonates, as a white ferrocyanuret
by ferrocyanuret of potassium, and as a protosulphuret by
alkaline hydrosulphates.

Properties. Color dark blue, and communicates a blue
tint to substances melted with it. It is magnetic, and so
combustible, that it takes fire spontaneously in the open air,
and is converted into the peroxide. Its salts absorb oxygen
so rapidly from the air, as to be useful in eudiometry. It is

the base of the native carbonate, and the *green vitriol* of commerce.

Peroxide of Iron. 2Fe + 3O or Fe + 1½O. 80. This is the *red hematite* of mineralogists, a very abundant natural production.

Process. It is made chemically by dissolving iron in nitro-hydrochloric acid, and adding an alkali.

The precipitate is of a brownish color, and is identical with the mineral called *brown hematite*, and consists of 1 equivalent of the peroxide and 2 of water.

Properties. It is a brownish-red compound, not attracted by the magnet. It is precipitated from its salts by the pure alkalies. With ferrocyanuret of potassium it forms *Prussian blue;* with infusion of nutgalls it forms ink.

Tests of the presence of iron in any composition, may be made by boiling it with nitric acid, which converts the iron into the peroxide; the ferrocyanuret of potassium will then form a blue precipitate.

Black Oxide. (Fe + O) + (2Fe + 3O.) 116. This compound is called, by Berzelius, *oxidum ferroso-ferricum*, and is supposed to be a mixture or combination of the two preceding oxides.

It occurs native, often in regular octohedral crystals. It is formed also when iron is heated in the open air, or in contact with moisture. It is not only magnetic, but is itself often a magnet. With sulphuric acid, an olive-colored solution is formed, containing two salts, the sulphate of the protoxide, and peroxide, which may be separated from each other by means of alcohol. The black oxide is the cause of the green color of glass.

Protochloride of Iron (Fe + Cl. 63.42) is formed by dissolving iron in hydrochloric acid, evaporating to dryness, and heating the product to redness, in a tube deprived of air. It is a gray, crystalline substance, fusing at a red heat, and is easily converted into the hydrochlorate of the protoxide of iron.

Perchloride of Iron (2Fe + 3Cl. 162.26) is formed by the combustion of iron in chlorine gas. It is a yellowish-brown substance, crystallizes in small iridescent plates, of a red color; volatilizes at little above 212°; deliquesces readily, and dissolves in water, alcohol, and ether, and is converted by water into the hydrochlorate of the peroxide of iron.

Protiodide of Iron (Fe + I. 154.3) is prepared by digest-

ing iodine in water and iron wire. On evaporating the solution to dryness, without exposure to the air, and heating it moderately, it yields crystals of an iron-gray color and metallic lustre, deliquescent, very soluble in water and alcohol, and used in medicine as a tonic.

The Periodide of Iron (2F + 3I. 434.9) is obtained by exposing a solution of the protiodide to the air. It is a volatile, red compound, soluble in water and alcohol.

The Protobromide of Iron (Fe + Br. 106.4) and the *Perbromide of Iron* (2Fe + 3Br. 291.2) are formed in a similar manner with the iodides and have similar properties. *Protofluoride of Iron.* Fe + F. 46.68.

Perfluoride of Iron (2Fe + 3F. 112.04) is formed by dissolving peroxide of iron in hydrofluoric acid. As the acid becomes saturated, crystals are formed in small, white, square tables, which are sparingly soluble in water.

Protosulphuret of Iron (Fe + S. 44.1) is prepared by heating equal parts of sulphur and iron-filings in a covered Hessian crucible; considerable heat is evolved, and a yellowish-gray substance is formed ; this is completely dissolved, if pure, by dilute sulphuric acid, yielding hydrosulphuric acid. It exists in nature, in the *variegated copper pyrites*, and forms a black precipitate, when hydrosulphate of ammonia is mixed with the sulphate of the protoxide of iron.

Sesquisulphuret of Iron (2Fe + 3S. 104.3) is formed by the action of the hydrosulphuric acid on the hydrated peroxide of iron.

It has a yellowish-gray color, and dissolves in dilute sulphuric and hydrochloric acids, with the formation of hydrosulphuric acid and bisulphuret of iron.

Bisulphuret of Iron. Fe + 2S. 60.2. This is the *iron pyrites* of mineralogists, and occurs abundantly in cubes, or in some analogous form, of a yellow color, and metallic lustre ; sp. gr. 4.981 ; so hard as to strike fire with steel ; hence its name.

It is dissolved by nitrohydrochloric acid, but by no other acid, except the nitric. By heat, it is converted into magnetic iron pyrites, if in close vessels, but exposed to the air, into the peroxide of iron.

Magnetic Iron Pyrites. (5Fe + S) + (Fe + 2S.) 280.7. This natural product appears to be composed of 5 equivs. of the protosulphuret and 1 of the bisulphuret. It may be formed as above. It is much more easily oxidized than the bisulphuret.

Tetrasulphuret of Iron (4Fe + S. 128.1) and the *Disulphuret of Iron* (2Fe + S. .72) may be formed by passing hydrogen gas, at a red heat, over the anhydrous sulphate of the protoxide of iron, to obtain the di

sulphuret, **and** over the disulphate of the peroxide of iron, for the tetra-sulphuret.

Properties. They exist in a grayish-black powder, soluble in dilute sulphuric acid, with the evolution of hydrogen and hydrofluoric acid gases.

Diphosphuret of Iron ($2Fe + P$. 71.7) is prepared by heating the phosphuret in a covered crucible, lined with charcoal.

Properties. It is a fused, granular substance, which resembles iron in color and lustre, but is very brittle, and renders iron brittle, when contained in it, as it sometimes is.

Perphosphuret of Iron ($3Fe + 4P$. 146.8) is obtained by the action of phosphuret of hydrogen on sulphuret of iron, and resembles the preceding in most of its properties.

Carburets of Iron. Carbon and iron unite in several proportions; only three seem worthy of notice — graphite, cast or pig iron, and steel.

Graphite is known as a natural product, under the names of *plumbago* and *black-lead.* There is not more than 10 per cent. of iron, and often not 5. Used for pencils, crayons, crucibles, and for burnishing iron.

Cast Iron is a compound of carbon and iron, and is the product of melting the ores of iron with charcoal. Its uses are well known.

Steel is formed by filling a furnace with bars of the best malleable iron, with layers of charcoal between, and subjecting them to strong heat away from the air; about 1.3 to 1.75 per cent. of carbon combines with the iron. This is the substance used for the various purposes of the arts. It is much harder than iron, but more brittle, also less ductile and malleable, but more firm in its texture, and capable of a higher polish. By fusion it forms *cast steel.*

Protocyanide of Iron ($Fe + Cy$. 54.39) is prepared by mixing in solution cyanide of potassium with sulphate of protoxide of iron; on exposure to the air, it passes to *Prussian blue.*

Protosulphocyanide of Iron ($Fe + CyS^2$. 86.59) is obtained by dissolving iron in hydrosulphocyanuric acid, and evaporating the pale green solution to dryness *in vacuo.*

Sequisulphocyanide of Iron ($2Fe + 3CyS^2$. 231.77) is prepared by mixing the sulphocyanide of potassium with any salt of the peroxide of iron. It has a blood-red color, and is a very delicate test of the presence of iron.

ZINC. Symb. Zn. Equiv. 32.3. Sp. gr. 7.00.

Zinc has long been known in the East, India and China, but was first distinctly noticed in the sixteenth century, by Paracelsus, under the name of *zinetum.* Henckel is the first who obtained the metal from calamine, in the year 1721 Von Swab first obtained it by distillation in 1742; and Margraff published a process in the Berlin Memoirs in 1746.

Natural History. Zinc, like most of the metals, is rarely found pure in nature, but is an abundant substance in combination with oxygen, carbon, and sulphur.

Process. Commercial zinc, or spelter, is generally obtained from calamine, native carbonate of zinc, or from the native sulphuret, called by mineralogists *zinc blende.* This is oxidized by heating it in the open air, called *roasting.* It is then distilled; that is, it is heated in a crucible open at the bottom and closed at the top, to which is affixed a tube, which terminates just above a basin of water; the gaseous products, with the vapor of zinc, pass through the tube, and the zinc is condensed. The first portions are impure, containing cadmium and arsenic, which give the brown blaze; when the blue blaze is seen, the zinc is collected. It contains now some impurities, which are removed by a white heat in an earthen retort, to which a receiver full of water is adapted.

Properties. This metal is bluish-white, with a strong metallic lustre and lamellated texture. It is a hard and brittle metal; but between the temperatures of 210° and 300° Fahr., it is malleable and ductile, and in this state is rolled out into plates; fuses at 773° Fahr., and when slowly cooled, crystallizes in four or six-sided prisms. It is easily pulverized when heated to a certain temperature below redness, and sublimes at a high temperature in close vessels, without change

Uses. Zinc is used extensively in the arts, for the construction of voltaic instruments, and for covering buildings. It has been proposed to use it for culinary vessels, water-pipes, and sheathing fo ships; but it is so easily oxidized and acted upon by the weakest acids, that it is unfit for these uses.

Compounds of Zinc.

Protoxide of Zinc. Zn + O. 40.3. This is the only known oxide of zinc, formerly called *flowers of zinc, nihil album,* and *philosopher's wool.*

Process. It is obtained by the combustion of zinc in the open air, in oxygen gas, or by heating the carbonate to redness. It is found native in Franklin, New Jersey.

Exp. Melt zinc in a covered crucible, and when it is at a white heat, remove the cover; it will burst out into a white flame, forming the oxide.

The Hydrated Oxide of Zinc may be obtained by uniting a rod of iron and zinc, and placing them in caustic ammonia, in a close vessel.

Properties. At common temperatures it is white, but assumes a yellow color when heated to redness; insoluble in water, and is a strong salifiable base.

The oxide is precipitated from its solutions, as a *white hydrate,* by pure potassa and ammonia, and as a *carbonate* by alkaline carbonates. The oxide is sometimes substituted for white lead for paint; it is more durable, but not so white.

Berzelius describes a suboxide, and Thenard a binoxide, but they are doubtful substances.

Chloride of Zinc (Zn + Cl. 67.72) is formed by burning zinc-filings in chlorine. It is colorless, fusible a little above 212°, and has so soft a consistency at common temperatures, as to be called *butter of zinc.*
Iodide of Zinc (Zn + I. 158.6) is prepared by digesting iodine in water with zinc-filings.
Bromide of Zinc (Zn + Br. 110.7) is formed in a similar manner with the preceding.
Fluoride of Zinc (Zn + F. 50.98) is prepared by the action of hydrofluoric acid on the oxide of zinc. It exists as a white solid.

Sulphuret of Zinc (Zn + S. 48.4) is a native product, known by the name of *zinc blende.* It may be formed by heating sulphur with the oxide; it crystallizes in dodecahedrons; lamellated structure, adamantine lustre; color red, yellow, brown, or black. *Cyanide of Zinc.* ZnCy. 58.69.

CADMIUM. Symb. Cd. Equiv. 55.8. Sp. gr. 8.604.

History. Cadmium was discovered in 1817, by Stromeyer, of Göttingen, in an oxide of zinc which had been prepared

for medical use. Dr. Clark detected it in the zinc ores of Derbyshire, and in the common zinc of commerce, and Mr. Herapath found it in considerable quantities in the zinc works near Bristol, England.

Process. The following is the process of Stromeyer. The ore of cadmium is dissolved in hydrochloric or sulphuric acid in excess. The sulphuret of cadmium is precipitated by hydrosulphuric acid. Nitric acid decomposes this, and forms a nitrate, which is evaporated to dryness. To a solution of this in water, an excess of carbonate of ammonia is added, and the white carbonate of the oxide of cadmium is precipitated, which, when subjected to a red heat, yields a pure oxide. The metallic cadmium is obtained from the oxide, by heating it with charcoal.

Properties. Cadmium resembles tin in its color and lustre, but is harder and more tenacious; very ductile and malleable; melts at about the same temperature as tin, and is nearly as volatile as mercury. Heated in the open air, it absorbs oxygen, and is converted into the

Oxide of Cadmium, ($Cd + O$. 63.8,) which is the only known oxide; is a strong alkaline base, forming neutral salts with acids; insoluble in water; fixed in the fire; and precipitated by all the alkaline carbonates, and by pure ammonia and potassa.

Chloride of Cadmium. $Cd + Cl$. 91.22. This compound is formed by dissolving oxide of cadmium in hydrochloric acid. By concentration, the chloride crystallizes in four-sided rectangular prisms, which lose their water of crystallization by heat, and even in dry air; fused below redness, and sublimes at a high temperature.

Iodide of Cadmium ($Cd + I$. 182.1) is formed in the same way as the iodide of zinc; soluble in water and alcohol, and crystallizes in large, colorless, transparent, hexagonal tables, which do not change in the air, and have a pearly lustre. By heat they lose water, and then fuse.

Sulphuret of Cadmium ($Cd + S$. 71.9) occurs in nature in zinc blende, and is prepared by the action of hydrosulphuric acid on the salts of cadmium. It has a yellowish-orange color, and may be distinguished from the sulphuret of arsenic by being insoluble in pure potassa, and by sustaining a white heat without subliming.

Phosphuret of Cadmium is a gray compound, very brittle and fusible

TIN. Symb. Sn. Equiv. 58.9. Sp. gr. 7.2.

Tin was known to the ancients, in the time of Moses; and was obtained, chiefly from Cornwall, England, and Spain, at a very early period, by the Phœnicians.

Process. The tin of commerce is obtained from the native oxide by heat and charcoal, and in the form of block and grain tin.

Stream Tin is the native oxide of Cornwall, which is found in rounded pebbles, occasioned by the action of water. Tin is seldom perfectly pure, containing a little copper, iron, and arsenic. That from Malacca is the purest.

Tin Foil is often an alloy of tin and lead. *Block tin* is less pure than grain tin.

Properties. Tin has a color and lustre resembling silver. It is very malleable. Tin foil does not exceed $\frac{1}{1000}$ of an inch in thickness, but its ductility and tenacity are inferior to many of the metals. When bent backward and forward, a crackling noise is produced, by which it may be readily distinguished from lead, zinc, etc. It fuses at 240° Fahr. When heated to whiteness, it takes fire. If a drop of the fused tin fall upon a board, it will divide into several globules, and burn with a beautiful white light. The brilliancy of its surface tarnishes slowly when exposed to the air at common temperatures, but oxidizes at a high temperature.

Compounds of Tin.

Protoxide of Tin (Sn + O. 66.9. sp. gr. 6.666) is formed by fusing tin for some time in an open vessel, or it may be precipitated, as a hydrated oxide, from a solution of chloride of tin, by an alkaline carbonate.

Properties. It is a gray powder, permanent in the air, unless touched by a red-hot body, when it takes fire, and is converted into the peroxide. It is dissolved in the strong acids, and the pure, fixed alkalies. Its salts readily absorb oxygen from the air and other compounds; hence it throws down

mercury, silver, and platinum, from their salts. With gold it causes the *purple precipitate of Cassius;* by this character it is readily distinguished. It is precipitated from its solutions by hydrosulphuric acid as a black protosulphuret.

Sesquioxide of Tin (2Sn + 3O. 139.8) is prepared by mixing recently precipitated and moist hydrated peroxide of iron with a solution of protochloride of tin. The sesquioxide is precipitated in a slimy, gray matter, of a yellowish tint, from oxide of iron; distinguished from the protoxide by being soluble in ammonia.

Binoxide of Tin (Sn + 2O. 74.9) is prepared by the action of nitric acid on metallic tin. The concentrated acid does not act on the tin, but, on the addition of water, violent effervescence takes place, and a white powder — the hydrated binoxide of tin — is formed. The water is expelled by heat, and the pure binoxide, of a straw-yellow color, results. The hydrated oxide may also be precipitated from the protochloride by potassa, ammonia, or the alkaline carbonates; but the properties differ from that formed in the other way, the latter being dissolved in the strong acids, while the former is not. It acts the part of a feeble acid, uniting with the pure alkalies, and forming a class of compounds — the *stannates.*

Binoxide of tin is recognized by its being precipitated from its solutions by hydrochloric acids as a bulky hydrate, and by any of the alkalies or alkaline carbonates. When melted with glass, it forms a white enamel.

Protochloride of Tin (Sn + Cl. 94.32) is obtained by distilling equal weights of tin and bichloride of mercury. It is a gray solid, of resinous lustre; fuses below redness, and sublimes at a high temperature; crystallizes in small, white needles. A solution of the protochloride may be prepared for deoxidizing purposes, by heating granulated tin in strong hydrochloric acid, as long as hydrogen gas is evolved.

Bichloride of Tin (Sn + 2Cl. 129.74) is formed by distilling 8 parts of granulated tin with 24 of bichloride of mercury, or by heating the protochloride in chlorine gas.

Properties. It is a colorless liquid, very volatile, yielding white fumes in an open vessel; hence formerly called the *fuming liquor* of Libavius; boils at 248°; sp. gr. of its vapor, 9.1997; mixed with $\frac{1}{3}$ of its weight of water, it forms a solid hydrate, but dissolves in a larger quantity of water.

Uses. The solution called *permuriate of tin* is used in dyeing, and is prepared by dissolving tin in nitrohydrochloric acid.

Protiodide of Tin (Sn + I. 185.2) is prepared by heating granulated tin with 2½ times its weight of iodine. It is a brownish-red substance very fusible, volatile, and soluble.

Biniodide of Tin (Sn + 2I. 311.5) is prepared by dissolving the hy

drate of the peroxide, precipitated by alkalies, from the bichloride, in hydriodic acid. It forms yellow crystals of a silky lustre.

Protosulphuret of Tin (Sn + S. 75) is prepared by pouring melted tin upon its own weight of sulphur, and stirring rapidly with a stick. It has a bluish-gray, or nearly black color, and metallic lustre ; fuses at red heat, and has a lamellated texture when cool.

Sesquisulphuret of Tin (2 Sn + 3S. 166.1) is obtained by heating to low redness the protosulphuret with $\frac{1}{3}$ of its weight of sulphur. It is a deep grayish-yellow compound.

Bisulphuret of Tin. Sn + 2S. 91.1. This compound was formerly called *Mosaic gold*, and may be prepared by heating a mixture of 2 parts of peroxide of tin, 2 of sulphur, and 1 part of hydrochlorate of ammonia, in a glass or earthen retort, to a low red heat, till sulphurous acid ceases to be evolved.

Properties. It occurs in crystalline scales, of a golden-yellow color, and metallic lustre ; soluble in pure potassa, and its only solvent among the acids is the nitrohydrochloric acid. It is obtained, as a hydrate, by the action of hydrosulphuric acid, and the bichloride of tin, in solution.

Terphosphuret of Tin (Sn + 3P. 106) is formed, according to Rose, by the action of phosphuret of hydrogen on a solution of protochloride of tin. It oxidizes rapidly in the air.

COBALT. Symb. Co. Equiv. 29.5. Sp. gr. 7.834.

Cobalt was discovered by Brandt, and derives its name, *Kobold, an evil spirit,* from the belief of the German miners that its presence was unfavorable to that of valuable metals.

Natural History. It exists in nature, generally, in combination with arsenic. It is also a constant ingredient in meteoric iron, and is found combined with sulphur and other combustibles.

Process. It may be obtained from the oxide, by heating it in connection with charcoal, and then passing over it a stream of hydrogen gas, to combine with the oxygen.

Properties. Cobalt is a brittle solid, of a reddish-gray color, and weak metallic lustre ; fuses at 130° Wedgwood, and crystallizes when slowly cooled. It is attracted by the magnet, and is susceptible of being rendered permanently magnetic ; absorbs oxygen when heated in open vessels. It is also oxidized by nitric acid, and decomposes water at a red heat.

Compounds of Cobalt.

Protoxide of Cobalt (Co + O. 37.5) is obtained by decomposing the carbonate, by heat, in a vessel from which the air is excluded.

Properties. It has an ash-gray color, and is the base of all the salts of the metal, most of which are a pink-blue When heated, it absorbs oxygen, and is converted into the peroxide. It is distinguished by giving a blue tint to borax when melted with it.

Zaffre is an impure oxide of cobalt, obtained by heating the arseniuret in a reverberatory furnace. When this substance is heated with sand and potassa, a beautiful blue-colored glass is formed, known by the name of *smalt*, and used in the arts for communicating the blue color to glass, porcelain, and earthen-ware.

The protoxide is easily precipitated from its salts by alkalies; the precipitates are of a blue or pale pink color; dissolved in excess of alkali.

$\frac{4}{3}$ *Oxide of Cobalt* (3Co + 4O. 120.5) is probably a compound of the peroxide and the protoxide.

Peroxide of Cobalt (2Co + 3O. 83) is obtained as a black hydrate with 2 equivs. of water, when chloride of cobalt is decomposed by chloride of lime. The water is driven off by exposure to a heat of 600° or 700°. It combines with none of the acids, and, when strongly heated, is decomposed, and resolved into the protoxide and oxygen.

Chloride of Cobalt (Co + Cl. 64.92) is obtained by dissolving metallic cobalt, or either of its oxides, in hydrochloric acid. The solution is of a pink color, and yields, on evaporation, small crystals of the same color. When these crystals are deprived of their water of crystallization, they assume a blue color — a property on which is founded its use as a *sympathetic ink*.

Exp. Write on paper with a dilute solution of the chloride, and expose it to a gentle heat; it becomes blue. This solution is called *Hillot's sympathetic ink*, and is described by some chemists as a *muriate* of cobalt; but Turner thinks it a *chloride*, analogous to several other compounds generally described as *muriates* of the metals.

Exp. Draw the branches of a tree with India ink, and put on the foliage with the chloride of cobalt. When cold, the foliage does not appear, but shows itself on the application of heat. A landscape may

be represented, in this manner, as wintry or vernal, according as the heat is increased or diminished.

Sulphurets of Cobalt. Cobalt unites with sulphur in three proportions.

The *Protosulphuret* (Co + S. 45.6) is formed by throwing fragments of sulphur on red-hot cobalt; has a gray color, a metallic lustre, and crystalline texture.

The *Sesquisulphuret of Cobalt* (2Co + 3S. 107.3) is formed by passing a current of hydrosulphuric acid gas over the *oxysulphuret*, at a red heat.

The *Bisulphuret* (Co + 2S. 61.7) is prepared by heating below redness, in a glass tube, 2 parts of the carbonate of the oxide of cobalt, intimately mixed with 3 of sulphur.

Subphosphuret of Cobalt (3Co + 2P. 119.9) is obtained by the action of phosphureted hydrogen on chloride of cobalt. It is a pulverulent gray solid.

NICKEL. Symb. Ni. Equiv. 29.5. Sp. gr. 8.2579

Nickel was discovered by Cronstedt in 1751, in the *kupfer nickel* (*copper nickel*) of Westphalia. The term *nickel* was applied to the ore because it looked like copper, but did not yield it. It exists also in meteoric iron.

Process. Nickel may be extracted from the ore, — which is an *arseniuret of nickel*, containing small quantities of sulphur, copper, cobalt, and iron, — or from *speiss;* also an arseniuret which is obtained in forming smalt from the roasted ores of cobalt. This metal is obtained by heating the oxalate or the oxide with charcoal in close vessels.*

Properties. Color white, intermediate between tin and silver; strong metallic lustre; ductile and malleable; attracted by the magnet, and, like iron and cobalt, may be rendered permanently magnetic; a little less infusible than iron; oxidized at a red heat, and by nitric acid.

Compounds of Nickel.

Protoxide of Nickel (Ni + O. 37.5) is formed by heating the carbonate, oxalate, or nitrate, to redness, to drive off the acid.

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* For processes, see Turner's Elements, p. 351.

Properties   Color at first an ash-gray, but, when exposed to a white heat, it is of a dull olive-green. This is the strong alkaline base of the metal, and nearly all the salts have a green tint. Pure alkalies precipitate this oxide from its salts, as a hydrate of a pale green color. The alkaline carbonates and hydrosulphurets also precipitate it from its salts, the former as a carbonate, the latter as a sulphuret of a black color.

Sesquioxide of Nickel (2Ni + 3O. 83) is formed by transmitting chlorine through water, in which the hydrate of the protoxide is suspended. It has a black color, does not unite with acids, and is decomposed at a red heat.

Chloride of Nickel (Ni + Cl. 64.92) is formed by the action of hydrochloric acid upon metallic nickel, or one of its oxides; an emerald-green solution is formed, and, on evaporation, yields crystals of the same tint, which deliquesce in moist air, and effloresce if the air is dry.

Protosulphuret of Nickel (Ni + S. 45.6) is formed by a similar process with the protosulphuret of cobalt; occurs native in acicular crystals — the *haarkies* of the Germans. When dry, it is of a grayish-yellow color, while the precipitates are dark brown; soluble in nitric or nitrohydrochloric acid.

Disulphuret of Nickel (2Ni + S. 75.1) is obtained by passing hydrogen gas over the sulphate of nickel at a red heat; color light yellow, and is more fusible than the preceding.

Subphosphuret of Nickel (3Ni + 2P. 119.9) is obtained by the action of hydrogen on subphosphate of oxide of nickel. Color black, soluble in nitric acid, and burns with a flame under the blowpipe.

Cyanide of Nickel (Ni + Cy. 55.89) is obtained by mixing in solution a salt of nickel with cyanide of potassium. A precipitate is formed, of a pale, apple-green color, which becomes tinged with yellow on drying.

Sect. 2.   Metals which do not decompose Water at any Temperature, and the Oxides of which are not reduced to the metallic State by the sole Action of Heat.

ARSENIC.   Symb. As.   Equiv. 37.7.*   Sp. gr. 5.8853.

Arsenic was first discovered by Dioscorides, who called it *Sandarac;* but its properties were first investigated by Brandt, in 1733.

Natural History.   It exists in nature, in small quantities, rarely in a metallic state. It is generally found in com-

* By some chemists the equiv. for arsenic is 75.34.

pination with cobalt and iron, and occasionally with other metals.

Process. Metallic arsenic is obtained by roasting the ores in a reverberatory furnace; as the arsenic is expelled by heat, it combines with oxygen, and condenses into thick cakes on the chimney. These cakes are purified by a second sublimation, and constitute the *white oxide of arsenic* — a virulent poison. This substance is then mixed with twice its weight of *black flux*,* exposed with charcoal to a red heat in a Hessian crucible; and the metal is sublimed and collected in an empty crucible, which is placed over the other, and kept cool for the purpose of condensation.

Properties. Arsenic is a very brittle metal, of a steel-gray color, high metallic lustre, and of a crystalline structure. When heated to 356°, it sublimes without fusion, and may be collected in close vessels without change; but, when thrown on a red-hot iron, it burns with a blue flame and white smoke, giving off a strong odor of garlic — a property which belongs to no other metal, unless it be zinc; when thus heated in the open air, it is converted into the white oxide of arsenic. Exposed at common temperatures of the air, it oxidizes slowly, forming the substance called *fly-powder*, which is a mixture of the oxide and the metal.

Arsenic detonates with some of the salts, and decomposes them.

Exp. Take 3 parts of chlorate of potassa, and 1 of arsenic, finely powdered, and cautiously mixed together.

1. Place a small quantity on an anvil, and strike it with a hammer; the arsenic will instantly combine with the salt, producing an explosion with flame.

2. Set it on fire, and it will burn rapidly.

3. Throw it into concentrated sulphuric acid, and a bright flash of light will be perceived at the moment of contact.

Uses. Arsenic is used in the arts. It renders glass white.

Compounds of Arsenic.

Arsenious acid, (2As + 3O. 99.4,) commonly called *white arsenic* and *white oxide of arsenic,* may be formed by the

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* Prepared by detonating, in a crucible, 1 part of nitre with 2 of the crystals of tartar.   12

combustion of the metal; but the white arsenic of commerce is obtained from the *arseniurets* of *cobalt*, by sublimation.

Properties. Arsenious acid is white, semitransparent, and, when first formed, of a vitreous lustre and conchoidal fracture. Its acid taste is owing to the inflammation which it produces; it has a faint impression of sweetness. Its sp. gr. is 3 7; has two crystalline forms, but is usually found in six-sided scales, derived from a rhombic prism; soluble in water.

It is one of the most virulent poisons known; and, as it is sometimes accidentally or intentionally taken, it is a frequent cause of death, and a subject of judicial investigation. Hence the importance of pointing out the most effectual modes of detecting its presence.

Tests. The most valuable are the *ammoniaco-nitrate of silver, ammoniaco-sulphate of copper, hydrosulphuric acid,* and *hydrogen gas.*

1. Obtain as large a quantity of the liquid from the stomach as possible. This, with parts of the stomach, should be put into pure water, filtered and evaporated, so as to obtain a concentrated solution; add to this, ammoniacal nitrate of silver,* and if arsenic is present, a yellow — arseniate of silver — will be thrown down.

2. Add to the suspected liquid ammoniacal sulphate of copper,† and a green precipitate will be formed, called *Scheele's green.*

3. Pass into the liquid, hydrosulphuric acid, and if arsenious acid is present, orpiment, or the sesquisulphuret of arsenic will be formed, giving to the liquor a yellow, turbid appearance. This sulphuret should then be dried, mixed with black flux, carefully introduced into a glass tube, and heated by a spirit lamp; the sulphuret will be decomposed, and metallic arsenic appear on the cool parts of the tube. This is a very satisfactory test; but if, on heating the sub-

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* Prepared by dropping into a strong solution of nitrate of silver ammonia, till the oxide of silver, first precipitated, is nearly all dissolved.

† Prepared in the same way with the preceding, by using the sulphate of copper, instead of the nitrate of silver

stance thus deposited, it rises up in white fumes, with an alliaceous odor, and is deposited in white, octohedral crystals, we may be sure that arsenic is present.

4. Introduce a quantity of the suspected liquid into a Florence flask, having a jet pipe and a stop-cock attached, with zinc and sulphuric acid; the water will be decomposed, and the nascent hydrogen, in passing through the water containing arsenious acid, will form arseniureted hydrogen; and on burning the gas, as it issues from the jet, metallic arsenic will be deposited on a plate of glass or porcelain, held over the flame.

Any one of these tests, however, should not be depended upon in a case where the life of a fellow-being is at stake, as other metals, such as antimony, will sometimes present a similar appearance; but if the suspected substance be tested by each of the four ways mentioned, there can be no doubt but that it contains arsenious acid.

Its action upon animals, whether taken into the stomach, or applied to wounds, is attended with pain and vomiting; and if life be prolonged beyond twenty-four hours, diarrhœa, a sensation of heat, and extreme pain in the stomach and intestines, succeed, pulse feeble, countenance anxious, skin livid, often attended by eruptions.

The best antidote is *perhydrate of iron*, with a small quantity of ammonia. In cases rapidly fatal, extreme faintness, cold sweats, attended with slight convulsions, are experienced. (See Christison on Poisons.)

Arsenic has the property of preserving from decay the bodies of those poisoned with it. The stomach and intestines have thus been found entire two years and a half after death.

Arsenic Acid ($2As + 5O$. 115.4) is formed by dissolving arsenious acid in concentrated nitric, mixed with a small quantity of hydrochloric acid, distilling in a glass vessel until it acquires the consistency of sirup, and then heating nearly to redness, in a platinum crucible, to expel the nitric acid.

Properties. It has a sour, metallic taste, reddens the vegetable blue colors, and combines with alkalies, forming arseniates. It is decomposed by hydrosulphuric acid. This acid is also an active poison.

Protochloride of Arsenic (AsCl. 73.12) is prepared by heating in a retort, to nearly 212°, arsenious acid, with ten times its weight of concentrated sulphuric acid, and throwing them in fragments of common salt.

Sesquichloride of Arsenic (As²Cl³. 181.66) is formed by the spontaneous combustion of powdered arsenic in chlorine gas. It is a color

less, volatile liquid, giving off fumes, on exposure to the air; hence called *fuming liquor of arsenic.*

Periodide of Arsenic (2As + 51. 706.9) is formed by gently heating arsenic with iodine. It is a deep red compound, decomposed by water.

Protohyduret of Arsenic (As + H. 38.7) is prepared by the action of water on an alloy of arsenic and potassium.

Sesquibromide of Arsenic. 2As + 3Br. 310.6. When arsenic and bromine are brought into contact, they instantly unite with vivid evolution of light and heat.

Hyduret of Arsenic. 2As + 3H. 78.4. This gas was discovered by Scheele. It is generally made by digesting an alloy of tin and arsenic in hydrochloric acid. It is colorless; has a fetid odor resembling garlic; sp. gr. 2.695; extinguishes burning bodies, but burns with a blue flame. It is poisonous in a high degree, having proved fatal to M. Gehlen. It is decomposed by chlorine, iodine, caloric, and even atmospheric air; it forms with oxygen an explosive mixture.

Protosulphuret of Arsenic. As + S. 53.8. This substance exists in the mineral kingdom, and is called *realgar.* It may be formed by heating arsenious acid with half its weight of sulphur, until the mixture is perfectly fused. It is crystalline, transparent, and of a ruby-red color.

Sesquisulphuret of Arsenic. 2As + 3S. 123.7. This in the native state is called *orpiment.*

Process. It may be formed by fusing arsenious acid and sulphur, but it is purer, if obtained by passing hydrosulphuric acid gas through a solution of arsenious acid.

Properties. This substance has a rich, yellow color, and is employed as a pigment. It is the coloring principle in the paint called *king's yellow.*

Persulphuret of Arsenic (2As + 5S. 155.9) is formed by passing hydrosulphuric acid through a moderately strong solution of arsenic acid. It resembles orpiment in color. The sulphurets of arsenic are poisonous.

CHROMIUM. Symb. Cr. Equiv. 28. Sp. gr. 5.9.

*Chromium** was discovered in 1797, by Vauquelin, in a beautiful red mineral, the native chromate of lead. It exists

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* Χρῶμα, *color,* from its remarkable tendency to form colored compounds.

also in chromate of iron, a native mineral found abundantly in Europe, and also in this country.

Process. This metal has been obtained only in small quantities, owing to its affinity for oxygen. The oxide may be deprived of its oxygen, by heating it with charcoal in a smith's forge.

Properties. A brittle metal, of a grayish-white color, and very infusible. It is oxidized by heating it with nitre, and converted into chromic acid.

Compounds of Chromium.

Sesquioxide of Chromium. $2Cr + 3O$. 80. Exists native in the emerald.

Process. It is prepared by dissolving chromate of potassa in water, and mixing it with a solution of nitrate of mercury, when a yellow-colored precipitate — the chromate of mercury — is formed. When this salt is heated to redness in an earthen crucible, the mercury is driven off, and the chromic acid is resolved into oxygen, and oxide of chromium.

Properties. Oxide of chromium is of a green color, very infusible, insoluble in water, and after being strongly heated, resists the action of the most powerful acids; heated with nitre, it is converted into chromic acid. Fused with borax or vitreous substances, it communicates to them a beautiful green color. Hence its utility in the arts. It unites with acids, and forms green-colored salts.

Chromic Acid ($Cr + 3O$. Equiv. 52) may be obtained from the native *chromate of iron.*

Process. It is best prepared by transmitting the gaseous fluoride of chromium into water contained in a vessel of silver or platinum; when, by mutual decomposition of the gas and the water, hydrofluoric and chromic acids are generated. — T.

Properties. This acid is black while warm, and dark red when cold. When dry, according to Hayes, it is yellowish-brown, very soluble in water, rendering it red and yellow. When a heated concentrated solution cools, it deposits red crystals, very deliquescent. The solution has an acid, astringent taste, and bleaches litmus paper. It destroys most vegetable and animal coloring matters. Hence its use in calico-printing. It is characterized by its color, and by forming colored salts with alkaline bases.

Sesquichloride of Chromium (2Cr + 3Cl. 162.26) may be prepared by transmitting dry chlorine gas over a mixture of oxide of chromium and charcoal, heated to redness in a porcelain tube ; when the sesqui-chloride gradually collects as a crystalline sublimate of a peach-purple color. — T.

Terchloride of Chromium (Cr + 3Cl. 134.26) is formed by the action of fuming sulphuric acid on a mixture of chromate of lead and chloride of sodium.

Oxychloride of Chromium. CrCl³ + 2CrO³. 238.26.

Sesquifluoride of Chromium (2Cr + 3F. 112.04) is formed by dissolving the oxide in hydrofluoric acid, and evaporating to dryness.

Terfluoride of Chromium. Cr + 3F. 28 + 56.04 = 84.04.

Sesquisulphuret of Chromium (2Cr + 3S. 104.3) may be obtained by heating in close vessels a mixture of sulphur and the hydrated oxide. It is of a dark-gray color, acquiring a metallic lustre by friction.

Protophosphuret of Chromium (Cr + P or CrP. 43.7) is prepared by passing phosphureted hydrogen gas over the sesquichloride of chromium at a red heat ; a black compound, burning before the blowpipe, with a flame of phosphorus.

VANADIUM.   Symb. V.   Equiv. 68.5.

Vanadium was discovered by Sefstrom, in 1830. It derives its name from *Vanadis*, a Scandinavian deity.

Natural History. It exists in the iron ore of Taberg, Sweden, and is found in great abundance in the slag formed by converting the cast iron of Taberg into malleable iron. It was also found by Johnson, at Wanlock-Head, Scotland, where it occurs as a vanadiate of lead.

Process. It has been obtained in various ways — by heating vanadic acid with potassium, and by the decomposition of the chloride of vanadium.*

Properties. When obtained by means of potassium, it is a brittle, black substance ; but when prepared by decomposing the chloride, it is white, resembling silver, of a strong metallic lustre. It is not oxidized by air or water ; boiling sulphuric, hydrochloric, and hydrofluoric acids do not affect it, but it is dissolved by nitric and nitrohydrochloric acids and the solution has a fine, dark blue color.

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* For processes, see Turner's Elements.

Compounds of Vanadium.

Protoxide of Vanadium (V + O. 76.5) may be obtained by heating vanadic acid with charcoal or hydrogen gas. It is a dark brown, or black, substance, soluble in nitric acid.

Binoxide of Vanadium (V + 2O. 84.5) may be prepared by heating to full redness 10 parts of the protoxide, with 12 of vanadic acid, in a vessel filled with carbonic acid. It is black, very infusible, and insoluble in water. Its salts have a blue color. It acts the part of an acid by uniting with alkaline bases.

Vanadic Acid (V + 3O. 92.5) is tasteless, insoluble in alcohol, and very slightly soluble in water. It is easily decomposed by heating it with combustible matter, and in solution by all deoxidizing agents. It unites with bases often in two or more proportions; most of its neutral salts are yellow. It is distinguished from all other acids, except the chromic, by its color, and from this acid by the action of deoxidizing substances, which give a blue solution with the former, and green with the latter.*

MOLYBDENUM. Symb. Mo. Equiv. 47.7. Sp. gr. 8.615

Molybdenum was discovered in 1775.

Process. It was obtained from the native sulphuret, by digesting it in nitrohydrochloric acid, and heating the molybdic acid, thus formed, in connection with charcoal.

Properties. It is a brittle metal, of a white color, and very infusible. Its properties are imperfectly known.

Protoxide of Molybdenum (Mo + O. 55.7) is obtained by precipitating the hydrochloric solution of molybdic acid by zinc, when a brown hydrate is formed, giving dark colored solutions with the acids.

Binoxide of Molybdenum (Mo + O. 63.7) is prepared by putting a mixture of molybdate of soda and sal-ammoniac, in fine powder, in a red-hot crucible, instantly covering it, and continuing the heat until

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* The *bichloride of vanadium*, (VCl². 68.5 + 70.34 = 139.34;) the *terchloride of vanadium*, (VCl³. 68.5 + 106.26 = 174.76;) the *bibromide of vanadium*, (VBr². 68.5 + 156.8 = 225.3;) the *bisulphuret of vanadium*, (VS². 68.5 + 32.2 = 100.7;) the *tersulphuret*, (VS³. 68.5 + 48.3 = 116.8,) are unimportant compounds, for a description of which, see Turner's Elements, p. 365.

vapors of sal-ammoniac cease to arise. This is a deep brown anhydrous powder, insoluble in acids.

Molybdic Acid (Mo + 3O, or MO³ 71.7) may be obtained by roasting the native sulphuret in an open crucible, kept at a low red heat, and stirred until sulphurous acid ceases to escape. The yellow powder, thus formed, is treated with ammonia; the filtered solution evaporated, again disso ved in water and ammonia, and crystallized; the ammonia is then expelled by gentle heat.

It is a white powder; sp. gr. 34.9; fuses at a red heat into a yellow liquid; slightly soluble in water.*

TUNGSTEN. Symb. W. Equiv. 94.8. Sp. gr. 17.5

Tungsten is found native in the mineral wolfram.

Process. It is obtained by exposing a mixture of tungstic acid and charcoal to a strong heat.

Properties. It is a very hard, brittle metal, resembling iron in color, and, by the action of heat and air, converted into tungstic acid.

Compounds of Tungsten.

Binoxide of Tungsten (W + 2O. 110.8) is prepared by the action of hydrogen gas on tungstic acid, at a low red heat. It has a brown color, resembling copper when polished.

Tungstic Acid (W + 3O. 118.8) may be obtained by heating the binoxide to redness in open vessels. It is of a yellow color, insoluble in water, and has no action on litmus paper.

Bichloride of Tungsten (W + 2Cl. 165.64) is formed by heating tungsten in chlorine gas.†

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* For the preparation of the *protochloride of molybdenum*, (MoCl 83.12:) the *bichloride of molybdenum*, (MoCl². 118.54;) the *terchlorias of molybdenum*, (MoCl³. 153 96;) the *tersulphuret of molybdenum*, (MoS³ 96,) and the *persulphuret of molybdenum*, (MoS⁴. 112.1,) the student is referred to Turner's Elements, p 369.

† For a description of the *terchloride of tungsten*, (WCl³. 201.6;) *bisulphuret of tungsten*, (WS². 126;) and *tersulphuret of tungsten*, (WS³ 143.1,) see Turner's Chemistry.

COLUMBIUM. Symb. Ta. Equiv. 185.

Columbium was discovered in 1801, by Hatchett, in a black mineral in the British Museum, which had been sent by Governor Winthrop to Sir Hans Sloane, from Haddam, in Connecticut.*

Process. It is obtained by heating potassium with the double fluoride of potassium and columbium.

Properties. Obtained in this way, it is a black powder, and a non-conductor of electricity, but a perfect conductor in a more dense state. It acquires a metallic lustre by pressure; of an iron-gray color; fuses at a higher temperature than glass; heated in the open air, it takes fire, and is converted into columbic acid. It is easily dissolved in nitro-hydrofluoric acid.

Compounds of Columbium.

Binoxide of Columbium ($Ta + 2O$. 201) may be formed by exposing columbic acid in a crucible, lined with charcoal, and luted to exclude the air, for an hour and a half, to an intense heat. When reduced to powder, it is a dark brown substance, not acted upon by acids, but converted into columbic acid by fusion with potassa or nitre.

Columbic Acid ($Ta + 3O$. 209) is formed from the native columbates, by fusing the ores with three or four times their weight of carbonate of potassa, and precipitating the white hydrate by acids.

Properties. Hydrated columbic acid is tasteless, insoluble in water, and communicates a red tinge to moistened litmus paper; heated to redness, the water is expelled, and the *anhydrous* columbic acid remains.†

ANTIMONY. Symb. Sb. Equiv. 64.6. Sp. gr. 6.702

History. Antimony was discovered by Basil Valentine, in the fifteenth century. It derived its name from *anti monk,*

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* Tantalum, discovered by Ekeberg, is identical with this metal.

† The equiv. for antimony is considered by many late writers on chemistry to be double the number in the text, 129.2. The same is true of a few other substances, which are noticed in their proper places.

12*

from its having proved fatal to some monks, to whom it was given as a medicine.

It is found native in Sweden, France, and the Hartz; but generally occurs as a *sulphuret.*

Process. It may be obtained by heating the native sulphuret in a covered crucible, with half its weight of iron-filings; the sulphur unites with the iron, and the metal appears in the bottom of the crucible. Procured in this way, it is not absolutely pure, and, for chemical purposes, it should be procured by heating the oxide with an equal weight of cream of tartar.

Properties. A brittle metal, of a white color; fuses at 810°, and, on cooling, has a lamellated texture, and often yields crystals; burns with great brilliancy when placed on ignited charcoal, under a current of oxygen gas.

Compounds of Antimony.

Sesquioxide of Antimony $(2Sb + 3O. 153.2)$ is obtained by subjecting antimony in a covered crucible to a white heat, and then exposing it to the air; a white vapor arises, and condenses in fine crystals of silver whiteness.

It is the only oxide which forms regular salts. It is the base of *emetic tartar*, —— the tartrate of antimony and potassa. The test of antimony in solution is the hydrosulphuric acid, which yields an orange-colored precipitate.

Antimonious Acid $(2Sb + 4O. 161.2)$ is generated when the oxide is exposed to heat in open vessels. It is white when cold, and yellowish when heated; very infusible and fixed in the fire, by which it is distinguished from the oxide; insoluble in water and in acids, after being heated to redness.

Antimonic Acid $(2Sb + 5O. 169.2)$ may be obtained as a *white hydrate*, either by digesting the metal in strong nitric acid, or by dissolving it in nitrohydrochloric acid, concentrating by heat to expel excess of acid, and throwing the solution into water.

It is decomposed at a red heat, and converted into antimonious acid.

Sesquichloride of Antimony $(2Sb + 3Cl. 235.46)$ is generated by the spontaneous combustion of antimony in chlorine gas. It is a soft solid,

called *butter* of antimony ; easily fused, and deliquesces when exposed to the air.*

Sesquisulphuret of Antimony. 2Sb + 3S. 177.5. This is the principal ore of the metal, and hence is generally employed in making the preparations of antimony. It is of an earthy appearance, but is sometimes found in acicular crystals, of a red-gray color and metallic lustre ; sp. gr. 4.62. It may be formed artificially by fusing together antimony and sulphur.

Oxysulphuret of Antimony is composed of 2 equiv. of 2 Sb + 3S and 1 equiv. of $2SbO^3 = 508.2$. This occurs native — the *red antimony* of mineralogists. *Glass, liver,* and *crocus* of antimony are of a similar nature.

Kermes Mineral is formed by boiling the sesquisulphuret with a solution of potassa or soda. On neutralizing the cold solution, a similar substance, the *golden sulphuret,* is precipitated.†

Alloys. Printers' types are formed of 3 parts of lead, 1 of antimony, and a little copper.

Pewter is an alloy of 12 parts of tin, 1 of antimony, with a small addition of copper. The white metal for *teapots* is an alloy of 100 parts of tin, 8 of antimony, 2 of bismuth, and 2 of copper.

URANIUM. Symb. U. Equiv. 217. Sp. gr. 9.

Uranium was discovered by Klaproth, in 1789. It derives its name from the planet discovered the same year, (Uranus.) It exists in *pitch blende,* and is obtained from it by heating the ore to redness, and digesting its powder in pure nitric acid, diluted with 3 or 4 parts of water. Its properties are not well known.

Protoxide of Uranium (U + O. 225) is obtained by decomposing the nitrate of the sesquioxide by heat. It is of a dark green color, very infusible, and readily oxidized by nitric acid ; used in the arts to give a black color to porcelain.

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* *Bichloride of antimony ;* 2Sb + 4Cl. 270.88. *Perchloride of antimony ;* 2Sb + 5Cl. 306.3. *Oxychloride of antimony ;* 2 equiv. of 2Sb + 3Cl. and 9 equiv. of $SbO^3 = 1849.72$. *Bromide of antimony,* composition unknown.

† *Bisulphuret of antimony ;* 2Sb + 4S. 193.6. *Persulphuret of antimony ;* 2Sb + 5S. 209.7.

Sesquioxide of Uranium (2U + 3O. 458) is of a yellow color, and combines with acids and alkaline bases.

The *Protochloride of Uranium*, (U + Cl. 252.42;) *the Sesquichloride of Uranium*, (2U + 3Cl. 540.26,) and the *Sulphuret of Uranium*, are unimportant compounds. — (See Turner, page 380.)

CERIUM.* Symb. Ce. Equiv. 46.

Cerium was obtained, by Hisinger and Berzelius, from a mineral called *cerite*. It exists also in the mineral called *allanite*, as an oxide, which is very difficult to be reduced to the metallic state. Vauquelin obtained a small globule, not larger than a pin's head, which was not acted upon by any of the simple acids, and but slowly dissolved by the nitro-hydrochloric.

Compounds of Cerium.

Protoxide of Cerium (Ce + O. Eq. 54) is a white powder, insoluble in water. The salts, which are soluble, have an acid re-action.

Sesquioxide of Cerium (2Ce + 3O. 116) is obtained from *cerite*, and is a fawn-red substance, soluble in several of the acids.

Protochloride of Cerium. Ce + Cl or CeCl. 46 + 35.42 = 81.42.

Sesquichloride of Cerium. 2Ce + 3Cl or Ce²Cl³. 92 + 106.26 = 198.26.

Protosulphuret of Cerium. Ce + S or CeS. 62.1. — (See Turner's Chemistry, p. 381.)

BISMUTH. Symb. Bi. Equiv. 71. Sp. gr. 9.822.

Native Bismuth occurs in crystals, octohedra, or cubes, containing arsenic and cobalt. It is also found combined with sulphur- and oxygen, from which it is obtained by the aid of heat and charcoal.

Properties. It is a brittle solid, generally composed of broad plates of a reddish-white color, very fusible; melts at 476° Fahr., and forms very fine crystals by slow cooling.

Exp. For this purpose, fuse a quantity of it in a crucible, and let it cool until a crust is formed; break the crust and pour out the fluid be-

* So called from the planet Ceres, discovered about the same period

neath ; the inner surface will be lined with beautiful crystals. Under the compound blowpipe it burns with much brilliancy, producing yellow fumes of protoxide.

Protoxide of Bismuth (Bi + O. 79. Sp. gr. 8.211) may be formed as above. It forms salts, most of which are white; sublimes at a high temperature; fuses at a full red heat into a brown liquid. If the nitrate of the protoxide be thrown into water, a white precipitate is thrown down, formerly called *magistery of bismuth*, and *pearl white*, which is sometimes used as a paint, for *improving* the complexion.

Sesquioxide of Bismuth (2Bi + 3O. 166) is formed by fusing potassa with the protoxide of bismuth. It is a brown, heavy powder, little disposed to unite with acids, or alkalies.
Chloride of Bismuth (Bi + Cl. 106.42) is formed by the spontaneous combustion of bismuth in chlorine gas, formerly called *butter of bismuth* It is of a grayish-white color, and granular texture.
Bromide of Bismuth. Bi + Br. 71 + 78.4 = 149.4.
Sulphuret of Bismuth (Bi + S. 87.1) is found native.

TITANIUM. Symb. Ti. Equiv. 24.3. Sp. gr. 5.3.

Titanium was first noticed by Mr. Gregor, of Cornwall. Klaproth gave it the name of titanium, after the Titans of ancient fable. But its properties were determined by Wollaston, in 1822, who found it in the slag of an iron-smelting furnace in South Wales.

Properties. Its color is red, resembling copper. It exists in small cubes, which are so hard as to scratch rock-crystal, and very infusible. It generally contains traces of iron. The pure metal is obtained by heating the *chloride* with ammonia in a glass tube, when it appears in the form of a deep blue colored powder, which is apt to take fire, if exposed to the air when warm.

Compounds of Titanium.

Oxide of Titanium (Ti + O. 32.3) is obtained by exposing titanic acid to a strong heat in a black-lead crucible. It is of a purple color.
Titanic Acid, (Ti + 2O. 40.3,) also called *peroxide* of titanium, exists in the minerals *anatase* and *rutile*, from which the acid is obtained by the aid of heat and hydrosulphuric acid gas.[*]

[*] For processes, see Turner's Elements.

Properties. Titanic acid is of a white color; very infusible, and when once ignited, insoluble in acids, except in the hydrochloric. It is a feeble acid, resembling the silicic. If it is ignited with potassa, and dissolved in hydrochloric acid, a solution of gall-nuts will produce an orange-red color, which is very characteristic of titanic acid.

Bichloride of Titanium (Ti + 2Cl. 95.14) was discovered in 1824, by Mr. George, of Leeds, by transmitting dry chlorine gas over titanium at a low red heat.

Properties. A transparent, colorless liquid, which boils at 212°. The density of its vapor is 6.615; combines with water with explosive violence from the evolution of intense heat; on exposure to the atmosphere, it emits dense white fumes, of a pungent odor, similar to chlorine.

Bisulphuret of Titanium. Ti + 2S. Eq. 24.3 + 32.2 = 56.5.

TELLURIUM. Symb. Te. Equiv. 64.2. Sp. gr. 6.115.

Tellurium is a rare metal, found only in small quantities in Transylvania and Connecticut. It was first noticed by Müller, in 1782, but its existence was more fully established in 1798, by Klaproth, who called it *tellurium*, from *tellus*, the earth. It is found chiefly in combination with gold and silver.

Properties. It is a brittle metal, of a bright gray color; very infusible and volatile. Heated in the air, it burns with a sky-blue flame, edged with green; placed upon charcoal before the blowpipe, it inflames with violence, and flies entirely off in gray smoke, having a peculiarly nauseous smell.

Compounds of Tellurium.

Tellurous Acid, (Te + 2O. 80.2,) also called *oxide of tellurium*, is generated by the action of nitric acid on tellurium. It is a white, granular powder, resembling in many of its properties the titanic, and several other feeble acids. Its aqueous solution reddens litmus paper.

The other compounds are the *Telluric Acid,* (Te + 3O. 88.2;) *Chloride of Tellurium,* (Te + Cl. 99.62;) *Bichloride,* (Te + 2Cl. 135.04;) *Bisulphuret,* (Te + 2S. 96.4;) *Persulphuret* and *Hydrotelluric Acid,* (Te + H. 65.2.)

COPPER. Symb. Cu. Equiv. 31.6. Sp. gr. 8.895.

Copper, from *cuprum*, a name derived from the island Cyprus, has been known from the remotest ages.

Natural History. It is found native, and in combination with other substances, especially with sulphur. The copper of commerce is chiefly obtained from the native *sulphurets.* It exists in great abundance in Cornwall, and other parts of Europe, in Liberia, and in America.

Schoolcraft found a mass of native copper about thirty miles from Lake Superior, which weighs, by estimation, 2000 lbs.

Process. It may be obtained perfectly pure, by dissolving the copper of commerce in hydrochloric acid, diluting the solution, and immersing in it a clean plate of iron, upon which the copper will be precipitated.

Properties. Copper is distinguished from all other metals, except titanium, by its red color. It is very ductile and malleable; melts at 1996° Fahr.; burns before the compound blowpipe with a beautiful green flame, and if a fused globule be thrown into a glass jar, two feet high, filled with water, it will pass in full ignition to the bottom, and remain some time at a red heat.

Uses. Copper is one of the most useful metals, being employed extensively in most of the arts of life.

Compounds of Copper.

Red, or *Dioxide of Copper* (2Cu + O. 71.2) is found native in octohedral crystals.

Process. It may be prepared artificially, by heating, in a covered crucible, a mixture of 31.6 parts of copper-filings with 39 6 of the black oxide.

Properties. It resembles copper in color; sp. gr. 6.093; soluble in ammonia, and the solution is colorless, but it absorbs oxygen on exposure to the air, which produces a blue color, owing to the formation of the black oxide.

Black, or *Protoxide of Copper*. Cu + O. 39.6. This is the *copper black* of mineralogists, and is formed by the spontaneous oxidation of other ores of copper.

Properties. It varies from a dark brown to a bluish-black color, according to the mode of formation; combines with most of the acids, and its salts have a green or blue tint. It forms with ammonia a deep blue solution, which distinguishes it from all other substances. The salts of the protoxide of copper are mostly distinguished by their color. Metallic copper is separated from the salts by a rod of iron or zinc.

Binoxide of Copper. Cu + 2O. 31.6 + 16 = 47.6.

Dichloride of Copper (2Cu + Cl. 98.62) is formed by the spontaneous combustion of copper-filings in chlorine gas. It is of various colors, white, yellow, and dark brown, according to the mode of preparation; soluble in hydrochloric acid, but not in water.

Chloride of Copper; Cu + Cl. 67.02. *Diniodide of Copper;* 2Cu + I. 63.2 + 126.3 = 189.5. *Sulphuret of Copper* (Cu + S. 47.7) is a constituent of *copper pyrites*, in which it is combined with protosulphuret of iron. *Triphosphuret of Copper;* 3Cu + P. 110.5. *Subsequiphosphuret;* 3Cu + 2P. 126.2. *Cyanide of Copper;* Cu + Cy 57.99. *Disulphocyanide of Copper;* Cu + CyS². 63.2 + (26.39 + 32. 2) = 121.79. — (See Turner's Elements, p. 389.)

Tests. The best mode of detecting copper in mixed liquids is the hydrosulphuric acid. The sulphuret, after being collected, and heated to redness in order to char organic matter, should be placed on a piece of porcelain, and be digested in a few drops of nitric acid; sulphate of the protoxide of copper is formed, which, when evaporated to dryness, strikes the characteristic blue tint on the addition of ammonia. — T

Alloys. The alloys of copper are very important and useful substances.

Brass is an alloy of copper and zinc. The best brass consists of four parts of copper to one of zinc. *Tutenag* contains in addition a little iron. *Tombac, Dutch Gold, Similor, Prince Rupert's Metal,* and *Pinchbeck,* contain more copper than brass. *Bell-metal* and *Bronze* are alloys of copper and tin. The best proportion for bell-metal is 3 parts of copper to 1 of tin; for bronze, 8 to 12 of tin to 100 of copper. In these alloys, according to Dalton, the elements combine in definite proportions.

Poisonous Properties of Copper. Copper vessels used for culinary purposes should be coated with tin, as the oxide is poisonous. This is done by making the surface of the copper bright, rubbing over a little sal-ammoniac to prevent oxidation, and then heating the vessel and rubbing it with rosin and tin.

LEAD. Symb. Pb. Equiv. 103.6. Sp. gr. 11.352.

Lead was well known to the ancients. It is rarely found native, but its ores are abundant, the most important of which is the sulphuret or *galena*, from which the pure metal is chiefly obtained.* Berzelius obtained the metal perfectly pure by heating the pure nitrate of lead, mixed with charcoal, in a Hessian crucible.

Properties. The properties of lead are generally well known. It is of a bluish-white color, soft, malleable, and ductile; fuses at 612°, and by slow cooling, crystallizes in octohedra. The proper solvent of lead is nitric acid.

Compounds of Lead.

Protoxide of Lead (Pb + O. 111.6. Sp. gr. 9.4214) is prepared by heating the metal to a high temperature, and collecting the gray film which forms on the surface. This is exposed to heat in open vessels, until it acquires a uniform yellow color, and constitutes the *massicot*, and when partially fused, the *litharge* of commerce. This is always mixed with the red oxide; it is obtained perfectly pure by adding ammonia in excess to the nitrate in solution, washing the precipitate in cold water, and, when dry, heating it to redness for an hour in a platinum crucible.

Properties. Its color is red when hot, but acquires a rich lemon-yellow when cold; fuses at a bright red heat, and, after fusion, has a highly-foliated texture; insoluble in water; unites with acids, and forms the base for all the salts of lead.

It is precipitated from its solutions by pure alkalies as a

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* *Process.* The ore, in the state of coarse powder, is heated in a reverberatory furnace, when part of it is oxidized, yielding sulphate of protoxide of lead, sulphuric acid which is evolved, and free oxide of lead. These oxidized portions then re-act on sulphuret of lead, by the re-action of 2 equivalents of oxide of lead, and 1 of the sulphuret; 3 equivalents of oxide of lead and 1 of sulphuric acid result, while 1 equivalent of the sulphuret and 1 of the sulphate mutually decompose each other, giving rise to 2 equivalents of sulphurous acid, and 2 of metallic lead. The lead of commerce commonly contains silver, iron, and copper. — T.

white *hydrate,* which is re-dissolved by potassa in excess , as a white *carbonate,* which is the well-known *pigment* white *lead,* by alkaline carbonates ; as a white sulphate, by soluble sulphates; as a dark brown sulphuret by hydrosulphuric acid , and as a yellow iodide of lead, by hydriodic acid, or iodide of potassium. — T.

Metallic Lead is separated from the salts of the protoxide by iron or zinc.

Exp. In a solution of 1 part of acetate of lead in 24 parts of water, contained in a glass bottle, suspend a piece of zinc by a thread. The lead will be deposited upon the zinc in a form resembling a tree — a peculiar appearance, called *arbor Saturni.*

Uses. Protoxide of lead enters into the composition of flint-glass, and is employed for glazing earthen-ware and porcelain.

Peroxide of Lead (Pb + 2O. 119.6) is formed by the action of nitric acid upon the red oxide, or *minium* of commerce. It is of a puce color, insoluble in water, and resolved by strong oxygen acids into a salt of the protoxide and oxygen gas.

Red Oxide of Lead (3 Pb + 4O. 342.8) is prepared by heating lead in the air nearly to the point of fusion, by which it is oxidized. It is then exposed to a temperature of 600° or 700°, while a current of air passes across its surface. It slowly absorbs oxygen, and is converted into the *minium* of commerce. It is employed as a pigment, and in the manufacture of flint-glass, but does not unite with acids and form salts.

Chloride of Lead (Pb + Cl. 139.02) is obtained by adding hydrochloric acid to a solution of acetate or nitrate of lead. It is sometimes called *horn* lead ; dissolved in hot water, it appears, on cooling, in small, acicular, anhydrous crystals, of a white color.
Iodide of Lead ; Pb + I. 229.9. *Bromide of Lead ;* Pb + Br. 182 *Fluoride of Lead ;* Pb + F. 122.28. *Sulphuret of Lead ;* Pb + S. 119.7. *Phosphuret of Lead* and *Carburet of Lead,* composition uncertain. *Cyanide of Lead ;* Pb + Cy. 129.99. — (See Turner's Elements, p. 393.)

The salts of lead are generally *poisonous,* of which the carbonate is the most virulent.

Alloys of Lead. Common pewter is an alloy of 20 parts of lead and 80 of tin. *Fine solder* consists of 1 part of lead and 2 of tin, and is employed for tinning copper. *Coarse solder* contains one fourth of tin, and is used by plumbers. *Pot metal* is an alloy of lead and copper.

MERCURY, or QUICKSILVER.

Symb. Hg.   Equiv. 101,26 Sp: gr. 13.568.

Mercury was well known to the ancients. Its principal ore is the sulphuret or *native cinnabar*, from which it is separated by distillation with quick lime, or iron-filings.

Properties. Mercury is the only metal which retains its liquid form at common temperatures. It is of a tin-white color, and strong metallic lustre ; boils at 662° Fahr., and congeals at 40° below zero, in which state it is malleable, and has an increased specific gravity 15.612. It is not tarnished by exposure to cold, moist air, unless it contain other metals. It is sometimes adulterated with an alloy of lead and bismuth, which renders it less fluid and volatile, leaving a residuum when boiled in a silver spoon.

Mercury is not acted upon by any of the acids except the sulphuric and nitric.

It is used for collecting those gases which are absorbed by water ; also for barometers, thermometers, and for forming connections in *voltaic circles.*

Compounds of Mercury.

Dioxide of Mercury (Hg^2O. 210.52) is prepared by mixing *calomel* with pure potassa in excess in a mortar, and stirring it briskly to effect a rapid decomposition. The protoxide is then washed in cold water, and left to dry in a dark place.

Properties. It is a black powder, insoluble in water, combining with acids, and but feebly with alkalies. The alkalies precipitate it from the solution of its salts, as a black protoxide. The best test of its presence is the hydrosulphuric acid, by which is thrown down a black disulphuret.

Protoxide of Mercury (Hg O. 109.26) is commonly known by the name of *red precipitate.**

Process. Protoxide of mercury may be prepared by dissolving mercury in nitric acid, and exposing the nitrate thus formed to a temperature just sufficient to expel the whole of the nitric acid. It may also be formed by exposing mercury in a matrass, with a long tube, to the agency of heat and air, for the space of three or four weeks.

Properties. It exists in shining, crystalline scales, nearly black when hot, and red when cold; slightly soluble in water. The solution has an acrid, metallic taste, and is poisonous.

This oxide is separated from all acids by the carbonated fixed alkalies, and is reduced to the metallic state by copper.

Dichloride of Mercury (Hg^2+ Cl. 237.94) is commonly called *calomel,* and was first mentioned in the seventeenth century, by Crollius.

Process. It may be obtained by bringing chlorine gas in contact with mercury, but it is more commonly prepared by sublimation. This is done by mixing 1 equiv. of the chloride with 1 equiv. of mercury, until the metallic globules entirely disappear, and then subliming. To purify it from corrosive sublimate, which is always mixed with it, when first prepared, it must be reduced to powder, and well washed, when it will be fitted for chemical or medical purposes. The Dichloride is also found native, and called *horn quicksilver.*

Properties. When obtained by this process, calomel exists in semi-transparent, crystalline cakes, of a yellow color when warm, but white when cold; sublimes a little below a red heat, and a part of it is resolved into mercury, and the chloride. It is insoluble in water, and is decomposed by the pure alkalies.

Used extensively for medical purposes; acts powerfully upon the glandular system.

Chloride of Mercury (Hg + Cl. 136.68) is formed by heating mercury in chlorine gas. During the process, the metal burns with a pale red flame. It is prepared for medical purposes by subliming a mixture of sulphate of the protoxide of mercury with chloride of sodium, or sea-salt.

Properties. Chloride of mercury, commonly called *corrosive sublimate,* is a most virulent poison. It is white, semi-transparent, and crystalline in its texture; taste acrid and nauseous; more soluble in alcohol than in water; sp. gr. 5.2 It sublimes in the form of a dense, white vapor, when heated

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* This is the *hydrargyri oxidum rubrum* of the pharmacopolist.

powerfully affecting the mouth and nose; soluble in hydro-chloric, nitric, and sulphuric acids, and is decomposed by the alkalies, and several of the metals.*

Tests. Place a drop of the suspected liquid on polished gold, and touch the moistened surface with the point of a penknife; the part touched will instantly become white, owing to the formation of an amalgam of gold.

Some animal and vegetable substances convert the bichloride into calomel; the best is albumen, made by mixing the white of an egg in water; hence the white of an egg is an antidote to poisoning by cor rosive sublimate.

Disulphuret of Mercury. $Hg^2 + S.$ 226.62.*

Sulphuret of Mercury ($Hg + S.$ 117.36) may be formed by fusing sulphur with six times its weight of mercury, and subliming in close vessels.

Properties. When thus obtained, it has a red color, and is known by the name of *factitious cinnabar.* When reduced to powder, its tint is greatly improved, and constitutes the well known pigment, *vermilion.* The native *cinnabar* is a *sulphuret,* and is the principal ore of mercury.

Ethiops Mineral is a mixture of sulphur and the Sul-phuret, and may be formed by triturating equal parts of sul-phur and mercury, until the globules of mercury disappear.

Dicyanide of Mercury ($Hg^2 + C\bar{y}.$ 236.91) is prepared by boiling a solution of Prussian blue with an equal weight of peroxide of mercury in powder, until the blue color of the pigment entirely disappears. The solution, on evaporation, yields quadrangular prisms of *dicyanide of mercury.* It is colorless, inodorous, and highly poisonous.

Amalgams. Mercury combines with most of the metals, and forms a class of compounds called *amalgams.* An amalgam of one part of potassium and seventy of mercury is hard and brittle; on adding mercury to the liquid alloy of potassium and sodium, solidification and combustion ensue. Two parts of mercury, one of bismuth, and one of lead form a liquid amalgam, from which cubic crystals of bismuth are slowly formed. The combination of mercury with those metals which are not easily oxidized, enables them to combine with oxygen; hence gold and silver, in combination with mercury, are easily oxidized by heat and air. With tin, it forms an amalgam for coating mirrors.

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* By considering the equivalent of mercury at 101.26, the names of its compounds, in order to conform to the nomenclature, are changed in the the text: *di*oxide for *prot*oxide, *prot*oxide for *bin*oxide, *di*sulphuret for *proto*sulphuret, &c.

SILVER.* Symb. Ag. Equiv. 108. Sp. gr. 10.51.

Silver has been known from the earliest ages. It is found *native*, and in combination with other substances. The native silver occurs in octohedral or cubic crystals, seldom perfectly pure ; it is generally found in primitive formations. Peru and Mexico contain the richest mines of native silver which are known.

Preparation. Pure silver may be obtained from standard silver, by dissolving it in nitric acid and introducing a clean piece of copper. The metal will be precipitated upon the copper ; this is then to be washed in pure water, and digested in ammonia to remove the copper. A better process is to decompose the chloride of silver by carbonate of potassa.

Silver is often obtained from the argentiferous sulphuret of lead, by a process called *cupellation.*† Some of the ores are also reduced by amalgamation with mercury, and the mercury expelled by heat.

Properties. Silver has the clearest white color of all the metals. Its lustre, when polished, is surpassed only by polished steel ; so malleable that it may be extended into leaves less than a ten thousandth of an inch in thickness, and so ductile that it may be drawn into wire finer than the human hair. It fuses at 1873° Fahr., and appears extremely brilliant.

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* Lat. *argentum.*

† This process is conducted in the following manner : — The lead is kept at a red heat, in a flat furnace, with a draught of air playing on its surface. The lead is thus rapidly oxidized, while the silver is unaffected. As fast as the oxide is formed, it melts and runs off through an aperture in the sides of the furnace ; so that, in the end, the lead is all removed. The *button* of silver which remains is then melted in a small furnace resting on a porous earthen dish made with bone ashes called a *cupel, the porosity of which is so great that it absorbs any por tions of litharge which may remain on the silver.* The *cupel* is prepared by driving pounded bone ashes into a small brass mould by means of a pestle. It should then be removed and dried on paper. The cupel is then placed in a *muffle,* which is made of clay, arched above, and closed on all sides except the front. The whole is then placed in a *cupelling furnace,* which has an opening in one of its sides to receive the muffle. This is a very important process, and much used by refiners and assayers, in the analysis of alloyed silver.

It is not oxidized by air or moisture, but is tarnished by sulphurous vapors, which act slowly upon it; it burns with a fine green light, and throws off fumes of oxide when exposed to the action of voltaic currents. None of the pure acids act upon it but the sulphuric and nitric; the latter is its proper solvent, with which it forms the nitrate which, after fusion, is the *lunar caustic*.

Use Silver is one of the precious metals, and is used as a coin, and for various purposes of art.

Oxide of Silver ($Ag + O$ or AgO. 116) is best formed by mixing a solution of pure baryta with the nitrate dissolved in water; it is of a brown color, insoluble in water, and easily reduced by a red heat.

Fulminating Silver is a compound of oxide of silver and ammonia.
Process. Precipitate nitrate of silver by lime water; and, after washing and drying the precipitate, put it into a vessel of pure ammonia for twelve hours; a black powder will be thrown down, which, when carefully dried, explodes violently by the gentlest heat, or by slight friction. Great care should be taken in its preparation, and it should be preserved in small quantities in paper boxes.
By heating the solution, a more dangerous compound is formed.
A compound similar to the above, but less dangerous, is formed by dissolving silver in nitric acid, and adding to the solution successive portions of alcohol. This substance is used in the preparation of small balls called *torpedoes.*

Chloride of Silver ($Ag + Cl$. 143.42) is the *horn silver* of mineralogists.

Process. It is formed by mixing hydrochloric acid with a solution of oxide of silver. When first precipitated, it is white, but becomes almost black by exposure to the solar rays; insoluble in water, but very soluble in ammonia, by which it is usually distinguished from other chlorides. It is often employed in analysis as the means of ascertaining the amount of chlorine present in various compounds.

Iodide of Silver ($Ag + I$. 234.3) is a greenish-yellow substance.
Sulphuret of Silver. $Ag + S$. 124.1. This is the *silver glance* of mineralogists. Silver has a strong affinity for sulphur. On passing a current of hydrosulphuric acid gas through a solution of lunar caustic, a dark brown precipitate subsides, which is a sulphuret of silver.
Cyanide of Silver ($Ag + Cy$. 134.39) is a white, curdy substance

Alloys of Silver. Silver is alloyed with most of the metals. With steel it forms an alloy used in cutlery; with copper,

it forms the silver plate and coin,* which is the most useful of its alloys; with mercury, it forms an amalgam, sometimes employed for plating copper. Thermometer scales and clock dials are usually silvered by an alloy of chloride of silver, chalk, and pearlashes.

GOLD † Symb. Au. Equiv. 199.2. Sp. gr. 19.257.

Gold was known to the ancients, and has always been highly valued, as the most precious of the metals.

Natural History. Gold occurs *native*, alloyed with a little silver or copper. It crystallizes in cubes and octohedra; it is found in large quantities in alluvial soils, and in the beds of certain rivers, especially on the western coasts of Africa and Peru, in Brazil and Mexico, in Europe and the United States.‡

Process. Gold is generally separated by amalgamation and cupellation; but the best mode is to fuse the gold with silver, so that the latter shall constitute $\frac{1}{4}$ of the mass; nitric acid will dissolve the silver, and leave the gold. This process is called *quartation.*

To obtain gold perfectly pure, dissolve standard gold in nitrohydrochloric acid; evaporate the solution to dryness, re-dissolve it in distilled water, filter, and add to the solution sulphate of the protoxide of iron; a black powder falls, which, when washed in dilute hydrochloric acid and distilled water, yields, on fusion, a button of pure gold.

Properties. Gold is distinguished from all other metals by its yellow color; it exceeds all others in ductility and malleability; it may be beaten into leaves not exceeding $\frac{1}{282000}$ of an inch in thickness; it is very flexible and soft; fuses at 2016° Daniell, and appears of a brilliant green color.

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* The standard silver of Great Britain contains $11\frac{2}{20}$ of pure silver, and $\frac{18}{20}$ of copper; that of the United States, 1 part by weight of copper, and 9 of silver. The dollar weighs $412\frac{1}{2}$ grs., and the dime $41\frac{1}{4}$ grs.

† Lat. *aurum.*

‡ The gold from all the mines in the United States, in 1836, amounted to 467,000 dollars, 148,100 dollars of which were from North Carolina

It is not easily oxidized, even in the state of fusion; but, on subjecting a fine wire to an electric discharge, a purple powder is produced, which is probably an oxide; it is readily dissolved by nitrohydrochloric acid.

Protoxide of Gold (Au + O. 207.3) is formed by adding a cold solution of potassa to the protochloride; a precipitate falls, of a green color, which changes spontaneously into metallic gold and teroxide.

Binoxide of Gold (Au + 2O. 215.2) is formed by the combustion of gold.

Teroxide of Gold (Au + 3O. 223.2) is the only well-known oxide of gold.

Process. Dissolve 1 part of gold in the usual way, render it quite neutral by evaporation, and re-dissolve in 12 parts of water; to the solution add 1 part of the carbonate of potassa, dissolved in twice its weight of water, and digest at about 170°; carbonic acid gradually escapes, and the hydrated *teroxide,* of a brownish-red color, subsides. After being well washed, it is dissolved in colorless nitric acid of sp. gr. 1.4, and the solution decomposed by admixture with water.

The hydrated teroxide is thus obtained quite pure, and is rendered anhydrous by a temperature of 212° Fahr. — T.

Properties. The hydrate is yellow, but the anhydrous teroxide is nearly black, insoluble in water, and completely decomposed by solar light, or a red heat. With alkalies it acts the part of a weak acid, and was called by Pelletier *auric acid.* When the teroxide is kept in ammonia for the space of a day, a detonating compound of a deep olive color is formed. It is composed of 1 equiv. of gold, 2 of nitrogen, 6 of hydrogen, and 3 of oxygen.

The Fulminating Gold is a similar compound.

Process. Add pure liquid ammonia to the dilute chloride. The precipitate which is formed will be re-dissolved if too much alkali is used; filter the liquid, and wash the sediment several times in warm water; dry it by exposure to the air, and preserve it in small paper boxes.

Exp. Hold, on the point of a knife, a small portion of the powder over the flame of a spirit lamp, and it will detonate violently.

Exp. Place two or three grains on a sheet of copper, and explode it; it will force a hole through the copper; a spark from the electrical machine, or from a flint, will not affect it; but the slightest *friction* will cause it to explode; hence the danger of forming it, or of putting it up in large quantities.

13

Protochloride of Gold. Au + Cl. 234.62.

Terchloride of Gold (Au + 3Cl. 305.46) is obtained by concentrating a solution of gold, in ruby-red crystals. This is the compound from which pure gold is obtained, and also most of the preparations of gold.

Exp. When a strong aqueous solution of the terchloride is shaken with an equal volume of ether, two fluids result, the lighter of which is an ethereal solution of gold.

Exp. When a piece of charcoal is immersed in the aqueous solution, and exposed to the solar rays, it is covered with metallic gold.

Exp. Ribbons are gilded by moistening them in this solution, and exposing them to a current of hydrogen gas.

Exp. Add the protochloride of tin to a dilute aqueous solution of gold, and a purple-colored precipitate, the *purple of Cassius*, is thrown down. On fusing this powder with sand and borax, it forms a purple enamel, which is used for giving a pink color to porcelain.*

Alloys of Gold. Gold forms alloys with most of the metals. With tin it forms a whitish *brittle alloy.* On this account the old chemists called tin *diabolus metallorum.*

With lead, it forms a very brittle alloy. Even the fumes of lead destroy the ductility of gold. With copper, it forms the alloy used for standard gold ; which is perfectly malleable and ductile, harder than pure gold, and resists wear better than any other alloy, except that of silver ; sp. gr. 17.157. The standard gold of the United States is an alloy of 1 part of an alloy of copper and silver, and 9 parts of pure gold. The British "sovereign" is 22 carats fine, that is, 22 parts of pure gold, and 2 of copper and silver.

Water-Gilding. Mercury and gold combine, and form an amalgam much employed in gilding. It is applied to the surface of silver, and the mercury driven off by heat.

Porcelain is gilded with *gold powder*, obtained by decomposing the chloride of gold ; applied with a pencil, and burnished after exposure to the heat of a porcelain furnace.

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* *Iodides of gold* are formed by the action of iodide of potassium on the terchloride of gold. *Protiodide of gold ;* Au + I 325.5. *Teriodide of gold ;* Au + 3I. 578.1. *Tersulphuret of gold ;* Au + 3S. 247.5.

PLATINUM. Symb. Pl. Equiv. 98.8. Sp. gr. 21.25.

Platinum is a very rare metal. It occurs native in Brazil, Peru, and other countries of South America, in rounded or flattened grains, mingled with other metals. It is found in larger quantities in the Ural Mountains.

Properties. Platinum is the most dense of the metals, of a white color, resembling silver. It is malleable, and so ductile that it may be drawn into wire not exceeding $\frac{2}{1000}$ of an inch in diameter. It is soft, and easily welded, conducting caloric with less facility than many other metals. It is not attacked by any of the pure acids. Its solvent is chlorine, or nitrohydrochloric acid. It is fused before the compound blowpipe, and by voltaic electricity.

Spongy Platinum[*] has the remarkable property of causing oxygen and hydrogen gases to combine. Platinum foil will produce similar effects. This is due to the attraction of the gases for the platinum, and the repulsive power of the gases themselves. They are thus so condensed upon the surface as to bring the particles of the gases within the sphere of each other's attraction.

Exp. Let a jet of hydrogen and oxygen upon a piece of spongy platinum; the gas will soon be inflamed.

Protoxide of Platinum (Pl + O. 106.8) is prepared by digesting protochloride of platinum in a solution of pure potassa.

Binoxide of Platinum (Pl + 2O or PlO². 114.8) is prepared with difficulty. According to Berzelius, it should be prepared by exactly decomposing sulphate of binoxide of platinum with nitrate of baryta, and adding pure soda to the filtered solution, so as to precipitate about half of the oxide, which falls as a bulky hydrate, of a yellowish-brown color.

Sesquioxide of Platinum. 2Pl + 3O. 221.6. This oxide, of a gray color, is prepared by heating fulminating platinum with nitrous acid.

Protochloride of Platinum (Pl + Cl. 134.22) is formed when the bichloride is heated to 450°; half of its chloride is expelled, and the protochloride, of a greenish-gray color, remains.

Bichloride of Platinum. Pl + 2Cl. 169.64. This chloride is obtained by evaporating the solution of platinum in nitrohydrochloric acid to dryness, at a very gentle heat, when it remains as a red hydrate, which becomes brown when its water is expelled. — (See Turner, page 408.)

.* The sponge is prepared by adding ammonia to a solution of the chloride, and heating the precipitate to drive off the ammonia and chlorine.

Protiodide of Platinum. Pl + I. 225.1.

Biniodide of Platinum (Pl + 2I. 351.4) is prepared by the action of iodide of potassium on a rather dilute solution of bichloride of platinum. It is a black powder, tasteless, inodorous, and insoluble in water.

Protosulphuret of Platinum (Pl + S. 114.9) is prepared by heating the ammoniacal chloride with half its weight of sulphur, until all the sal-ammoniac and excess of sulphur are expelled.

Bisulphuret of Platinum (Pl + 2S. 131) is prepared by dropping a solution of bichloride of platinum into a solution of sulphuret of potassium.

Fulminating Platinum may be prepared by the action of ammonia in excess on the sulphate of protoxide of platinum. It explodes at 420° with a very loud report, but does not explode by percussion.

Palladium, Rhodium, Osmium, and Iridium, are found associated with platinum, but exist in small quantities.

Palladium (Pd. 53.3. Sp. gr. 11.5) was discovered by Wollaston, and resembles platinum in color and lustre.

Rhodium (R. 52.2. Sp. gr. 11) was also discovered by Wollaston. It is, when fused, of a white color, hard, and extremely brittle. It attracts oxygen at a red heat, and a mixture of peroxide and protoxide of rhodium is formed, not acted upon by any of the acids, unless alloyed with other metals.

Osmium (Os. 99.7. Sp. gr. 7 to 10) was discovered by Tennant, in 1803. It is a black powder, which acquires metallic lustre by friction. When heated in the open air, it takes fire, and is readily oxidized and dissolved by fuming nitric acid.

Osmic Acid (Os + 4O. 137.7) is formed by the oxidation of osmium by acids, by combustion, or by fusion with nitre or alkalies. Its vapor is very acrid, exciting cough, irritating the eyes, and producing a copious flow of saliva.[*]

Iridium (Ir. 98.8. Sp. gr. 15.3629) was discovered by Tennant, in 1803, and about the same time by Descotils, of France. It is the most infusible of all metals, very brittle, and when polished resembles platinum.

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[*] Several metals have lately been added, *Erbium* and *Terbium*, found in connection with Yttria by Mosander, *Pelopium* and *Niobium*, discovered by Rose in Columbite, and *Norium* in Zircon by Svanberg : but as yet they are very rare and but little known.

Latanium (*La*) is a metal recently discovered by Mosander. It is prepared by calcining the nitrate of cerium, mixed with nitrate of latanium.

CHAPTER III.

Class III.   Salts, or   Ternary   Compounds.

Salts comprise a very extensive class of compounds, in which acids combine with oxides, or with other compounds having similar properties. The oxide which combines with the acid, is termed a *base*, or *salifiable base*.

The substances hitherto described are either simple bodies, or, with a few exceptions, compounds of two simple elements, and are hence called *binary* compounds.

Salts, on the other hand, are composed of three or more simple bodies, and are hence termed *ternary* compounds. As salts, under favorable circumstances, readily assume regular crystalline forms, it seems proper, before proceeding to describe them, to present the subject of crystallization in general.

Section 1.   Crystallization.

Most bodies, under favorable circumstances, may be made to assume the form of a regular geometrical solid. The process by which such a body is produced is called *crystallization*; the solid is termed a *crystal*; and the science, the object of which is to study the form of crystals, is *crystalography*. The condition, by which this process is peculiarly favored, is the slow and gradual change of a fluid into a solid, the arrangement of the particles being at the same time undisturbed by motion. This is exemplified during the slow cooling of a fused mass of sulphur or bismuth, or the spon-

taneous evaporation of a saline solution. The numerous crys-
tals found in the mineral kingdom are due to the same cause.

The surfaces which limit the figure of crystals are called
planes or *faces*. The lines formed by the junction of two
planes are called *edges*, and the angle formed by two such
edges is a *plane angle;* a *solid angle* is the point formed by
the meeting of at least three planes. — T.

The *forms* of crystals are exceedingly diversified; they
may be divided into *primary* and *secondary* forms.

The *primary* forms are fifteen in number, and may be
distributed as follows : — 1. Prisms; 2. Octohedrons; 3. Do-
decahedrons.

I. The prisms have either a *six-sided* base, or a *four-sided*
base.

(1.) *Right Prisms.*

Fig. 95.

The bases are either right * or oblique,
and the prisms are named according to
their bases.

1. *The Hexahedron,* or *Cube,* (Fig.
95,) is a figure bounded by six square
faces, and all the angles of its edges are
equal to 90 degrees.
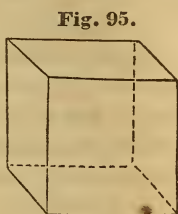
2. *The Right Square Prism* (Fig. 96)
differs from the cube in having its four lat-
eral planes *c, c, c, c,* rectangles, and the ter-
minal planes *a a* squares.
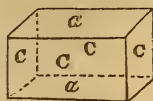
Fig. 96.

3. *The Right Rectangular Prism* (Fig.
96) differs from the former in having the
terminal planes *a, a,* rectangular instead of
square.

4. *The Right Rhombic
Prism* (Fig. 97) differs
from the two preceding
only in its terminal planes
a, b, being rhombs.
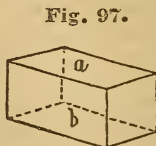
5. *The Right Rhom-
boidal Prism* (Fig. 98)
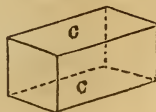
Fig. 97.   Fig. 98.

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* The term *right* denotes that the lateral and terminal planes are
inclined to each other at a right angle. It is used in opposition to

differs from the preceding form in the terminal planes *c c* being rhomboids.

6. *The Regular Hexagonal Prism* (Fig. 99) is bounded by six perpendicular or lateral planes, and two horizontal or terminal planes, *a, b,* which are at right angles to them.

Fig. 99.
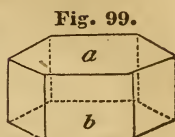
(2.) *Oblique Prisms.*

7. *The Rhombohedron* (Fig. 100) is bounded by six rhombic faces, of the same size and form.
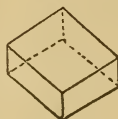
8. *The Oblique Rhombic Prisms* (Fig. 101) have the terminal planes *a, a,* rhombs, with the lateral planes forming oblique angles with them

Fig. 100.

Fig. 101.

9. *Oblique Rectangular Prism* differs from the preceding in having the terminal planes rectangles.

10. *Oblique Rhomboidal Prism* (Fig. 102) differs from the two preceding forms in the terminal planes *a, a,* being rhomboids.

Fig. 102.
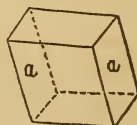
II. *The Octohedrons* are also named from their bases. The base of the octohedron is a section passing through four angles.

11. *Regular Octohedron* (Fig. 103) has a square base, *a a a a,* and is contained under eight equilateral triangles — hence all its plane angles are equal to 60 degrees. This figure is a regular solid of geometry.
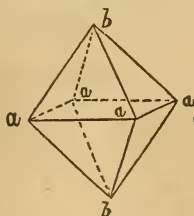
12. *Square Octohedron* (Fig. 104) has a square base, *a a a a,* and is bounded by eight faces, which are isosceles triangles. The base is always a square, the only part of the figure which is constant.
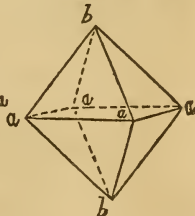
Fig. 103.

Fig. 104.

oblique, which signifies that the sides are not perpendicular, but form an oblique angle with the terminal planes. — T.

13. *Rectangular Octohedron* (Fig. 105) has a rectangular base, *a a a a*, and is bounded by eight isosceles triangles, four of which are different from the other four.

Fig. 105.
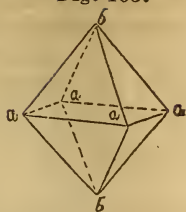
14. *Rhombic Octohedron* (Fig. 106) has a rhombic base, *a a a a*, and is contained under eight similar scalene triangles, but all its dimensions are variable.
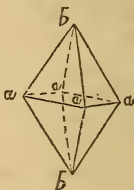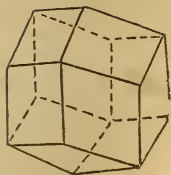
III. *Dodecahedrons.*

15. There is but one primary dodecahedron, called the *rhombic dodecahedron,* (Fig. 107,) and is limited by twelve similar rhombic faces; the faces incline to each other at an angle of 120 degrees *

Fig. 106.   Fig. 107.

Secondary Forms.

The secondary forms of crystals are very numerous, amounting to millions. The forms of a single mineral *calca-reous spar* have been found to be nearly a thousand; but each of the secondary forms may be reduced to one or more of the primary, by a process called *cleavage*. This process is usually performed with a sharp instrument, by removing thin laminæ from the faces, edges, or angles of the crystal. The surfaces exposed by splitting or cleaving a crystal, are termed the *faces of cleavage*, and the direction in which it may be cleaved is called the *direction of cleavage*. Some crystals are cleavable in one direction, and some in two, three, four, or more directions.

Those which cleave in more than two directions may, by the removal of layers parallel to the planes in their cleavage,

* The instrument used for measuring the angles, at which the planes of crystals meet or incline to each other, are called *goniometers.* — See Dana's Mineralogy, p. 32, New Haven. 1837.

be made to assume regular primary forms, whatever be their figure previous to cleavage.

It was formerly supposed that each substance always had the same *primary* form; but the discovery was made by Mitscherlich, in 1819, that *identity* of composition did not always indicate *identity* of crystalline form.

To this new branch of science the term *isomorphism* (from ἴσος, equal, and μορφή, form) is applied.[*]

The phenomena of crystallization are ascribed to cohesive attraction, or, more properly, to *crystalogenic attraction.*

The crystallization of salts is most readily effected by dissolving them in water, and evaporating the solution.

Exp. Introduce into a large matrass a pound and a half of Glauber s salts, (sulphate of soda,) with a pound of water, and boil the mixture until all the salt is dissolved; cork it tight, as the heat is removed and let it cool. On taking out the stopper, the salt will suddenly crystalize, and the whole will become nearly solid.

The water enters into the crystal in definite proportions, and is called the *water of crystallization.* The quantity of combined water is very variable in different crystals; such salts, when heated, dissolve, if soluble, in their own water of crystallization, undergoing what is termed *watery fusion* · some salts, when exposed to the air, lose their water of crystallization, and crumble down into a fine powder; this is termed *efflorescence:* others absorb water from the atmosphere, and are said to *deliquesce.*

Some salts enclose mechanically within their texture particles of water, by the expansion of which, when heated, they burst with a crackling noise; this is called *decrepitation*

Theories of the constitution of Salts.

I. The old and commonly received definition of a salt, is a substance formed by the union of two *bielementary* compounds. Thus one series of salts are formed by the union of oxides with oxides; another by a combination of chlorides with chlorides, sulphurets with sulphurets, &c. That is, compounds belonging to the *same* series unite with each other to form salts, and when compounds of different series are

13* [*] See Turner, 5th ed. p. 429.

mixed together they do not unite, but generally decompose
each other ; thus when sulphuric acid is poured upon chlo·
ride of sodium (*common salt*) the chloride is decomposed, and
sulphate of soda and hydrochloric acid are formed.

II. By some chemists the salts are divided into two classes.
The first class includes those bodies constituted as above, and
the second class such as are formed by the union of a simple
body of the chlorine family with a metal, such as we have
described as the chlorides, bromides, iodides, &c., of metals.
And regarding hydrogen as a metal, the *hydracids*, hydro-
chloric, hydriodic, hydrobromic are not *acids*, but *salts ;* and
the fact that when the hydracids are brought in contact with
a metal, the metal is substituted for their hydrogen, would
⁀eem to be a good reason for placing them in the same class
of compounds. If these views are correct, many of the oxy-
gen acids are really salts, in which case the *water* is the
oxygen base ; thus liquid sulphuric acid is a *sulphate* of
water. (SO^3+HO.)   Nitric acid is a nitrate of water.
($NO^5.HO+3HO$.)

III. A third theory of the constitution of salts would reduce
them all to *binary compounds*. That is, one of the elements
is what has been termed a *compound radical*, a compound like
cyanogen acting in combination like a simple element.   For
example, when sulphuric acid is poured on zinc, sulphate of
zinc is formed, and hydrogen evolved.   The change in this
case is explained by supposing that the hydrous sulphuric acid
($SO^3.HO$) has the composition, SO^4H, and that the zinc *Zn*
takes the place of the hydrogen, and there results the salt,
having the constitution SO^4+Zn.   The SO^4 is called the
compound radical.   This change, it will be seen, is precisely
similar to that which takes place when hydrochloric acid
(HCl) is poured on zinc, chloride of zinc ($Cl+Zn$) is formed,
and hydrogen escapes.

When oxygen acids act upon metallic oxides, as liquid nitric
acid upon potassa, we may explain the change by consider

ing the acid to be composed of NO^6+H, and the potassa of KO. NO^6 combines with K to form the nitrate of potassa, and the hydrogen of the acid and oxygen of the oxide unite and form water. In this way we may explain the formation of all the salts. The principal objection to the theory is found in the necessity of introducing a large number of these *compound radicals* which have never been *isolated*. They are, with a few exceptions, as cyanogen, purely *hypothetical* bodies; but an argument is adduced for the existence of such radicals from the action of voltaic electricity in decomposing binary compounds, as the iodides, chlorides, &c., compared with its action upon what have been supposed to be ternary compounds, or oxygen salts. It requires the same quantity of electricity to decompose a binary compound; but in the case of sulphate of soda, for example, if the water and the salt are both decomposed, which was supposed to be the case on the old theory, it ought to require twice the quantity of electricity, but it requires no more than to decompose water alone. If we consider the sulphate of soda to be composed of SO^4+Na, this effect is easily explained. The current separates the SO^4 from the Na, and as the sodium (Na) ar-arrives at the negative electrode, it decomposes an equiv. of water forming NaO and H, which escapes; the SO^4 also, on arriving at the opposite electrode, decomposes water with the formation of HSO^4, while O escapes; the decomposition of the water being a secondary action not due directly to the agency of the current.

Another argument in support of the existence of such *radicals* is, that many of the acids, as nitric acid, have never been obtained free from the elements of water. Such a sub-stance as NO^5 has never been isolated, but NO^6HO, and therefore NO^6+H may be its constitution. NO^6 would be a compound radical. Such a view cannot be objected to as an hypothesis; but if it be made the basis of a system, there are certainly very strong reasons against it.

Salts are divided into neutral, acid, and basic.

1. *A neutral salt* consists generally of one equiv. of acid united to one equiv. of base, or the number of atoms of acid is equal to the number of atoms of oxygen in the base.

2. *The acid salts* are of two kinds. 1st. Those in which water is present, in which case they are really double salts, water being one of the bases; thus bisulphate of potash is a *sulphate of potash* and a *sulphate of water* = $SO^3.KO + SO^3HO$. And 2dly. Those salts which do not contain water. These are the true acid salts, in which case the acid is in excess two or three equiv. of acid to one of base; thus the chromates of potash $(Cro^3 + KO, 2Cro^3 + KO$ and $3Cro^3 + KO)$ are good examples of acid salts.

3. *The basic salts* have, on the contrary, two or more equiv. of base to one of acid. Thus, the neutral nitrate of copper has the formula $NO^5.CuO + 3HO$, but the *basic nitrate* $NO^5 HO + 3CuO$, in which case there are three equiv. of base, which take the place of three equiv. of water in the neutral nitrate. On this principle several basic salts may be formed by substituting the oxide of the metal for the oxide of hydrogen. Sulphuric acid and oxide of zinc form such a series. Thus,

$$SO^3 + ZnO + 7HO. \qquad SO^3 + 6ZnO + 2HO.$$
$$SO^3 + 4ZnO + 4HO. \qquad SO^3 + 8ZnO.$$
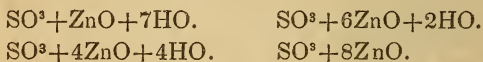
There are several *neutral* salts, however, which are *bibasic* and *tribasic*, as in the case of the three phosphates of silver and some others. (See Kane's Chemistry.)

4. *Double salts.* The double salts are composed of two simple salts. They generally consist of two acids and one base, or of two bases and one acid. In a few cases two bases and two acids are united.

5. There are several families of salts formed by the union of sulphurets with sulphurets, chlorides, iodides, cyanides, &c., with chlorides, iodides, cyanides, &c. These salts are similar in constitution to the oxygen salts. For example,

one sulphuret performs the office of an acid, and another of a base; thus the sulphuret of arsenic is a sulphur acid, and sulphuret of potassium, the sulphur base. These two substances combine and form arsenio-sulphuret of potassium; such salts are termed *sulphur salts.*

When chlorides, iodides, &c., combine with each other, they form a similar order, called the *haloid salts;* of which there are several families.

The chlorides, iodides, &c., sometimes combine with metallic oxides and form a family of salts, called oxy-chlorides, &c.

The *hydro-salts* are composed of hydracids, with ammonia and phosphuret of hydrogen. This order is discarded by many chemists. (See *hydro-salts.*)

For a more detailed account of the several theories mentioned above, on the nature, constitution, and classification of the salts, the student is referred to Kane's Chemistry; also to the works of Fownes, Graham, and others.

If the theory of compound radicals be admitted in organic chemistry, as it generally is, there seems no good reason for rejecting it in the constitution of salts. But some chemists, among whom is M. Gerhardt, explain the various reactions of organic compounds in such a way as to dispense with these hypothetical compound radicals; and until the doctrine is *fully* admitted in organic chemistry, it seems the safest course to adopt the common theory in regard to the constitution of inorganic salts. In as much as the properties of salts are not altered by any theory respecting their nature, we have concluded to retain the old division of *oxy-salts, hydro-salts, sulphur salts,* and *Haloid salts.*

SECTION 2.

ORDER I.—OXY-SALTS.

This order includes no compound the acid or base of which does not contain *oxygen.* All the powerful alkaline

bases, except ammonia, are *protoxides of an electro-positive metal.* If M represent an equivalent of any metal, $M + C$ or MO is the strongest alkaline base, and generally the only one which the metal is capable of forming; a single equiv of acid neutralizes MO, forming a neutral salt. Thus, if an equiv. of sulphuric and nitric acids be represented by SO^3 and NO^5, all the neutral sulphates and nitrates of the protoxide will be indicated by $MO + SO^3$ and $MO + NO^5$; hence it may be inferred, that, in each family of salts, there is a constant ratio in the oxygen of the base and that of the acid; that for sulphates is as 1 to 3, and the nitrates as 1 to 5. If the base be a binoxide, the same relation is preserved.

Salts sometimes combine with each other, forming *double salts;* these are composed of two acids and one base, of two bases and one acid, or of two different acids and two different bases; these were formerly called *triple salts.*

Those salts which are formed by the same acid, combined with different bases, have many properties in common, and hence they are classed in the same family.

1. Sulphates.

Many of the sulphates occur *native;* of which, those of lime and baryta are the most abundant. They may all be formed by the action of sulphuric acid on the metals, their oxides, their carbonates, or by double decomposition. They vary in solubility in water, and are all decomposed at a white heat, and by carbonaceous matter with the aid of heat.

Sulphuric Acid, which is the acid of all the sulphates, is readily detected by the chloride of barium — the acid having a stronger affinity for baryta than for any other alkaline base.

The sulphates are a very numerous family of salts. The following are the most important : —

Sulphate of Potassa, $(KO + SO^3.\ 87.25,)$ *potassa sulphas,*

was formerly called *sal de duobus*. It may be prepared by neutralizing carbonate of potassa with sulphuric acid.

Properties. Taste saline and bitter. Its crystals belong to the *right prismatic system*, and contain no water; soluble in 16 times their weight of water at 60°, and in 5 of boiling water.

Bisulphate of Potassa. $KO + 2SO^3$. 127.35; with 1 equiv. of water, 136.35. This salt is prepared by heating the sulphate, with half its weight of sulphuric acid, in a platinum crucible.

Properties. It has a sour taste, and reddens litmus paper;[*] is more soluble than the sulphates, and its crystals belong to the same order. It is used for cleaning coin, and other works in metal.

Sulphate of Soda ($NaO + SO^3$. 71.4; in crystals, with 10 equiv. of water, 161.4) is well known as *Glauber's salts.* It is found in the earth, and in the water of many springs. It is easily formed by saturating SO^3 with carbonate of soda.

Properties. Taste bitter, cooling, and saline. Its crystals belong to the right prismatic system; effloresces on exposure to the air, and undergoes watery fusion when heated. 12 parts of the salt require 100 of water at 32° to dissolve them. *Used* in pharmacy, and in the manufacture of glass.

Bisulphate of Soda. $NaO + 2SO^3$. 111.5; with 4 equiv. of water, 147.5.

Sulphate of Lⁱtha ($LO + SO^3$ 54.45; in crystals, with 1 equiv. of water, 63.45) has a saline taste, very soluble and fusible, and crystallizes in flat prisms.

Sulphate of Ammonia ($H^3N + SO^3$. 57.25; in crystals, with 2 equiv. of water, 75.25) sometimes occurs native in volcanoes, and near certain small lakes in Tuscany. It may be prepared by neutralizing sulphuric acid with carbonate of ammonia. It is contained in soot from coal.

Properties. It crystallizes in long, flattened, six-sided prisms, soluble in 2 parts of water at 60°, and in an equal weight of boiling water; effloresces in warm, dry air, losing

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[*] Unglazed paper, moistened in an infusion of litmus, and dried.

1 equiv. of water; yields its water of crystallization by heat, fuses, and is decomposed, yielding nitrogen, water, and sulphate of ammonia.

Uses. It is the source of the *hydrochlorate of ammonia*, which is obtained by a mixture of common salt and sulphate of ammonia by sublimation.

Sulphate of Baryta $(BaO + SO^3. \ 116.8. \ Sp. \ gr. \ 4.4)$ occurs *native* in great abundance, and is known by the name of *heavy-spar*.

Properties. Insoluble in water, and is precipitated by adding sulphuric acid to any soluble salt of baryta. So delicate is baryta as a test of SO^3, that 1 part of sulphate of soda in 400,000 of water is detected by it. It fuses at a high temperature into an opaque, white enamel.

Uses. It is employed in the manufacture of *jasper ware*, and for a paint under the name of *permanent white*.* (See Baryta, page 227.)

Sulphate of Strontia $(SrO + SO^3. \ 91.9)$ occurs *native* in beautiful crystals in Sicily, and also on Strontian Island Lake Erie.

Properties. It has a blue tint, and is called *celestine* sometimes it is colorless and transparent; nearly insoluble requiring 4000 parts of cold, and 3840 of hot water to dissolve it. Heated with charcoal, its acid is decomposed and sulphuret of strontium is formed.

Sulphate of Lime $(CaO + SO^3. \ 68.6;$ with 2 equiv. of water, 86.6) occurs in nature in large quantities. Every variety of *gypsum* is the sulphate combined with 2 equiv. of water; such as *plaster of Paris*, *selenite*, — which is a crystallized variety, — *alabaster*, a white, compact variety, used in statuary, — and *anhydrite*, which contains no water. The salt may be formed by mixing, in solution, a salt of lime with any soluble sulphate.

Properties. Crystals of *anhydrite* belong to the *right*, and of *gypsum* to the *oblique* prismatic systems. It is nearly tasteless, soluble in 500 parts of cold, and 450 of boiling

* It is the best paint for marking phials and jars in the laboratory It may be prepared by mixing the powder with oil and lampblack.

water; hence it is generally found in spring and river water, and especially in those waters called *hard*. Baryta will detect the sulphuric acid, and oxalic acid the lime. Heated to 212° *in vacuo*, it parts with 1 equiv. of water, and. at 300° the whole; in this state it is used as a cement. By mixing it with a certain portion of water, it hardens rapidly, and becomes dry and solid; on this account it is much used for taking impressions, for stereotype plates, and for casts, busts, and a great variety of purposes in the arts. It is used in agriculture as a mineral manure, and is highly useful to most soils.

Sulphate of Magnesia ($MgO + SO^3HO$. 69.8; in crystals, with 6 equiv. of water, $= 123.8$) was procured from the springs of Epsom, England, and hence called *Epsom salt*. It is found native, and constitutes the *bitter salt* and *hair salt* of mineralogists. Sometimes it is found incrusting the damp walls of cellars and new buildings. Many saline springs contain it.

Process. But it is generally obtained from sea-water, and exists in the bittern which is left after the crystallization of common salt. It is obtained by decomposing the hydrochlorate of magnesia contained in it with SO^3. It may also be formed from the carbonate by adding sulphuric acid.

Properties. It has a saline, bitter, and nauseous taste. Its crystals are small, quadrangular prisms,* slightly efflorescent in dry air, soluble in an equal weight of water at 60°, and $\frac{3}{4}$ of their weight of boiling water. They undergo watery fusion when heated, and are partially decomposed at a white heat.

Sulphate of Alumina. $2AlO^3 + SO^3$. 91.5; in crystals, with 9 equiv. of water, 172.5.

Tersulphate of Alumina. $2AlO^3 + 3SO^3$. 171.7; in crystals, with 18 equiv. of water, 333.7.

The Hydrated Disulphate is called *Aluminite.*

Sulphate of Protoxide of Manganese. $MnO + SO^3HO$. 84.8.

Sulphate of Protoxide of Iron. $FeO + SO^3HO$. 85.1; in crystals, with 5 equiv. of water, eq. 130.1. This is known

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* The larger crystals are generally right rhombic prisms

by the name of *green vitriol*, or *copperas*. It is prepared on
a large scale for the arts, by exposing the native protosulphu-
ret of iron to air and moisture; the iron is converted into
an oxide, and the sulphur into SO^3; they then combine and
form the sulphate. It may also be formed by the action of
SO^3 on the iron.

Properties. Its taste is strongly styptic and inky. When
pure, it does not redden the vegetable blue colors. Its crys-
tals have a blue tint, and belong to the oblique prismatic
system ; soluble in 2 parts of cold, and in $\frac{3}{4}$ its weight of
boiling water. It is used in the manufacture of fuming sul-
phuric acid and in dyeing.

Tersulphate of the Sequioxide. $Fe^2O^3 + 3SO^3$. 200.3.
Disulphate of the Sequioxide. $2Fe^2O^3 + SO^3$. 200.1.
Sulphate of the Protoxide of Zinc, $(ZnO + SO^3HO$. 89.4 ;
with 6 equiv. of water $= 143.4$,) commonly called *white vitriol*,
is formed by the action of dilute sulphuric acid on zinc. It
is prepared in the arts by roasting the native sulphuret of
zinc.

Properties. It crystallizes, by spontaneous evaporation, in
transparent, flattened, four-sided prisms, referable to a right
rhombic prism, and isomorphous with Epsom salt. Taste
strongly styptic, and, although a neutral salt, reddens vegeta-
ble blue colors ; soluble in $2\frac{1}{2}$ parts of cold, and a less quan-
tity of boiling water.

Use. A powerful emetic, and poisonous if given in large
doses.

Sulphate of Protoxide of Nickel $(NiO + SO^3HO$. 86.6)
crystallizes from its solution in pure water, in right rhombic
prisms, and, like most of the salts of nickel, is of a green
color.

Sulphate of Protoxide of Cobalt $(CO + SO^3HO$. 86.6) is
formed by digesting dilute SO^3 with oxide of cobalt. On
evaporation, it appears in the form of red crystals.

Tersulphate of the Sequioxide of Chromium. $Cr^2O^3 + 3$
SO^3. 200.3.

Sulphates of the Oxide of Copper.

The Disulphate (2CuO + SO³. 119.3) has not been obta ned in a separate state.

The Sulphate, or *Blue Vitriol,** (CuO + SO³HO. 88.7; in crystals, with 4 equiv. of water, 124.7) is formed by roasting the native sulphuret, or by dissolving the protoxide in dilute sulphuric acid, and crystallizing by evaporation.

Properties. The crystals are of a blue color, and yield 4 equiv. of water at 212°, and the whole at 430° Fahr., when it becomes a white powder.

When ammonia is dropped into a solution of the sulphate, it forms a dark blue solution, from which, when concentrated, crystals are deposited by the addition of alcohol. This is the *ammoniaret of copper* of the *U. S. Phar.*

Sulphate of the Oxides of Mercury.

The Sulphate of Dioxide Hg²O + SO³. 250.62) is formed when 2 parts of mercury are heated with 3 of strong sulphuric acid, so as to produce effervescence. If a strong heat is employed, the

Sulphate (HgO + SO³. 149.36) results, both being anhydrous. When this sulphate (the salt employed for making corrosive sublimate) is thrown into hot water, a yel low salt, the

Trisulphate, (3HgO + SO³. 671.66,) called *turpeth mineral,* is generated.

Sulphate of Oxide of Silver (ÅgO + SO³. 156.1) is deposited when sulphate of soda is mixed with nitrate of silver, and also by boiling silver with its weight of sulphuric acid.

Properties. It is white, and easily fused; soluble in 80 times its weight of hot water, and deposits small, needle-shaped crystals on cooling. It forms with ammonia a double salt, consisting of 1 equiv. of oxide of silver, 1 of acid, and 2 of ammonia. It crystallizes in rectangular prisms, isomorphous with the double chromate and seleniate of oxide of silver and ammonia.

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* Great use is now made of this substance for exciting electricity in galvanic batteries.

Nitrosulphuric Acid, consisting of **1 part of nitric dis-** solved in **10** of sulphuric acid, dissolves silver, but scarcely acts upon copper, lead, or iron, unless diluted with water; hence its use in separating silver from old plated articles.

Double Sulphates.

Sulphate of Soda and Lime ($NaOSO^3 + CaOSO^3$. 140) is the *Glauber-ite of mineralogists,* and occurs in the salt-mines of New Castle.

Sulphate of Potassa and Magnesia ($KOSO^3 + MgOSO^3$) is formed by mixing solutions of the two salts.

Sulphate of Potassa and Alumina. $KOSO^3 + Al^2O^3$. $3SO^3$. 258.95, do. with 24 equiv. of water $= 474.95$. This salt, the *common alum,* is prepared by roasting and lixiviating cer- tain clays, containing iron pyrites, and adding to the lyes a quantity of sulphate of potassa. It is obtained in Italy from *alum-stone.* Alum is also found in volcanic countries, pro- duced by the action of sulphurous vapors on rocks containing feldspar.

Properties. It has a sweetish, astringent taste; is soluble in 5 parts of water at 60°, and crystallizes in octohedrons. Ignited with charcoal, it forms *Homberg's Pyrophorus.*

Exp. Take 3 parts of lampblack, 4 of calcined alum, and 8 of pearl- ashes; mix them thoroughly, and heat them in an iron tube to a bright cherry-red, for one hour; on removal from the fire, the tube must be carefully stopped. This substance, when exposed to the air and breathed upon, ignites with slight explosions. The essential part is probably *sulphuret of potassium,* in minute divisions.

Use. Alum is of great use in the arts, especially in dye- ing and calico-printing, because of its attraction for coloring matter.

Ammonia Alum has the same form, appearance, and taste.

Soda Alum is also similar, except that it contains 26 equiv. of water.

Iron Alum is formed by mixing sulphate of potassa with tersulphate of sesquioxide of iron; it resembles common alum in form, color, taste, and composition.

Chrome Alums. The tersulphate of sesquioxide of chro- mium forms double salts, with the sulphate of potassa and ammonia, very similar to the preceding.

Manganese Alum is formed by mixing a solution of ter-sulphate of sesquioxide of manganese with sulphate of potassa. These salts all crystallize in the octohedral system, and are similar in composition, one oxide being substituted for another, to form the different varieties

2. SULPHITES.

The salts of sulphurous acid have not hitherto been minutely examined; the sulphites of potassa, soda, and ammonia, are made by neutralizing those alkalies with sulphurous acid, and are soluble in water; but most sulphites are sparingly soluble, if at all; they are decomposed by the stronger acids. — (See Turner, 5th edit. p. 443.)

3. NITRATES.

The nitrates may be prepared by the action of nitric acid on metals, on the salifiable bases, or on carbonates. As nitric acid forms *soluble* salts with all alkaline bases, the acids of the nitrates cannot be precipitated by any reagent. — T.

The nitrates are all decomposed by a high temperature, and by the agency of heat and combustible matter; hence they are much employed as oxidizing agents. The process of oxidation by nitre, is called *deflagration*, which is generally performed by mixing the inflammable body with an equal weight of the nitrate, and projecting the mixture, in small portions, into a red-hot crucible. All the neutral nitrates of the fixed alkalies and alkaline earths, together with most of the neutral nitrates of the common metals, are composed of 1 equiv. of nitric acid, and 1 of the protoxide; hence the oxygen of the base is to that of the acid, as 1 to 5; the general formula is $MO + NO^5$.

Nitrate of Potassa ($KO + NO^5$. 101.3) is an abundant natural product; it is obtained from the East Indies by lixiviating certain soils; in Germany and in France, it is produced in what are termed *nitre-beds*.

The French process consists in lixiviating old plaster rubbish. Nitre also exudes from new walls. Some caverns in Kentucky afford nitrate of lime, from which nitre is obtained by adding carbonate of potassa; it is also found under old buildings, and is commonly called *nitre* and *saltpetre.*

Properties. Colorless; has a saline and cooling taste, soluble in its own weight of boiling water; crystallizes in six-sided prisms without any water of crystallization; and fuses at 616°.

Fulminating Powder is formed of 3 parts of nitre, 2 of dry subcarbonate of potassa, and 1 of sulphur.

Exp. Heat a small quantity in the flame of a spirit lamp, and it will explode with considerable violence.

Uses. Used in chemistry as an oxidizing agent, and in the formation of nitric acid. In the East Indies, it is employed for cooling mixtures; one ounce of nitre to five of water, reduces the temperature 15°. From its anti-septic properties, it is employed for preserving animal substances.

In the arts, it is extensively employed in the manufacture of gunpowder, which consists of nitre, sulphur, and charcoal. In agriculture, it is used as a manure.

Nitrate of Soda, ($NaO + NO^5$. 85.45,) called by the old writers *cubic nitre,* occurs in the soils of India, and in Peru; it is analogous, in chemical properties, to the preceding; mixed with charcoal, it burns more slowly than nitre.

Nitrate of Ammonia ($H^3N + NO^5$. 71.3) is formed by neutralizing dilute nitric acid by carbonate of ammonia, and evaporating the solution. It is decomposed by heat, and yields the *exhilarating gas* or protoxide of nitrogen.

Nitrate of Baryta ($BaO + NO^5$. 130.85) is easily prepared by digesting the native carbonate in nitric acid, diluted with 8 or 10 parts of water; on evaporation, it crystallizes in transparent, anhydrous octohedrons, soluble in 12 parts of water at 60°, and 3 or 4 of boiling water. This salt is used as a re-agent, for preparing pure baryta, and in *pyrotechny,* to impart a green color to flame.*

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* The *green fire* is composed of 13 parts sulphur, 77 nitrate of baryta, 5 chlorate of potassa, 2 of arsenic, and 3 of charcoal.

Nitrate of Strontia ($SrO + NO^5$. 105.95; in prisms, with 5 equiv. of water, $= 150.95$) is prepared from the carbonate of strontia, in the same manner as the preceding, and has similar properties; it is used for the *red fire* employed at theatres.*

Nitrate of Lime ($CaO + NO^5$. 82.65) is found in old plaster and mortar; very soluble and deliquescent; crystallizes in hydrated prisms.

The *Nitrate of Magnesia* ($MgO + NO^5$. 74.85) has similar properties.

Nitrate of Protoxide of Copper ($CuO + NO^5$. 93.75) is formed by the action of nitric acid on copper; its crystals are prisms containing 7 equiv. of water, of a deep blue color, soluble in water and alcohol, and deliquescent.

Exp. Spread a drachm of this salt on a piece of tin foil, moisten it with water, fold it, and lay it on a plate; sufficient heat will often be evolved to ignite the metal.

Nitrate of Protoxide of Lead ($PbO + NO^5$. 165.75) may be formed by digesting litharge in dilute nitric acid; it crystallizes in anhydrous octohedrons, and has an acid re-action.

Dinitrate of Protoxide of Lead. $2PbO + NO^5$. $223.2 + 54.15 = 277.35$.

Nitrate of the Black Oxide of Mercury ($Hg^2O + NO^5$. 264.67; in crystals, with 2 equiv. of $Aq = 282.67$) is formed by dissolving mercury in cold dilute nitric acid. If there is an excess of acid, the solution by evaporation yields clear transparent rhombic crystals. By allowing the solution to stand, small cunary yellow crystals form, having the composition of $2HgO + NO^5 + HO$.

Nitrate of the Red Oxide of Mercury ($2HgO + NO^5 + 2HO = 290.67$) is formed by heating mercury with nitric acid in excess. On cooling it deposits rhomboidal crystals, deliquescent and very soluble. When the solution is diluted it is decomposed, and a *basic nitrate* of a bright cunary color is precipitated, symb. $3HgO. + NO^5HO$. If this powder is boiled in a large quantity of water, still another salt is formed, having the formula $6HgO + NO^5$.

Nitrate of Oxide of Silver ($AgO + NO^5$. 170.15) may be

* *Red fire* consists of 40 parts of nitrate of strontia, 13 sulphur, 5 chlorate of potassa, and 4 sulphuret of antimony, with a little powdered charcoal.

formed by dissolving silver in nitric acid, diluted with 3 parts of water; if the silver contain copper, it will give a greenish hue to the solution; if it contain gold, it will appear in the form of a black powder. The solution should be perfectly clear and colorless.*

Properties. The solution by evaporation deposits transparent, tabular crystals; it is caustic, and tinges animal substances of a deep yellow, which becomes, by exposure to light, deep purple or black, and is indelible.

Heated in a silver crucible to 426°, it fuses, and when cast into small cylinders, forms the *lunar caustic* of pharmacy. This, when pure, is white and transparent; but the common lunar caustic is dark and opaque, owing to the decomposition of the nitrate, by raising the temperature too high in its preparation, and also in consequence of copper and gold, which are often contained in it; it is soluble in its own weight of cold, and in half its weight of boiling water.

It is decomposed by light, leaving a black stain upon the skin or on paper, (see p. 68;) hence it is a very delicate test of animal matter, also of chlorine and hydrochloric acid, which latter causes a white precipitate, the chloride of silver.

It is also decomposed by sulphur, phosphorus, charcoal, hydrogen, and several of the metals.

Exp Place a few grains of this salt, with a little sulphur, and also with phosphorus, upon an anvil; when struck sharply with a hammer, the former will detonate, and the latter explode violently.

Exp. Dip a piece of silk into a solution of this salt, and, while moist, pass over it hydrogen gas; it will at first turn black, and then become iridescent, from the reduction of the metal.

Exp. Immerse in a solution of this salt a stick of phosphorus; it will soon become beautifully incrusted with the metal.

Exp. Immerse a slip of ivory in a dilute solution of the salt, till the ivory has acquired a bright yellow stain; remove it to a tumbler of distilled water, and expose it to the direct rays of the sun for two hours,

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* One of the best solvents of silver may be formed by dissolving 1 part of nitre in 10 by weight of concentrated sulphuric acid. When this compound is heated to between 100° and 200° Fahr., it will dissolve about one sixth of its weight of silver without acting in the least upon any copper, gold, lead, or iron, with which the silver may be combined; hence it is very useful to detach silver from old plate. To recover the silver from the solution, add common salt, and then decompose the chloride thus formed by carbonate of soda.

when it will become black, but, on rubbing it, the surface will become bright, resembling pure silver.

Nitrate of Silver is the principal ingredient in *indelible ink*, and in those compounds which are used for changing the color of the hair.

In all these cases, the effect depends upon the reduction of a part of the silver to the metallic state.

4. NITRITES.

According to Turner, very little is known of these salts.

5. CHLORATES.

The salts of chloric acid are very analogous to those of nitric acid. They are all soluble in water, and are distinguished by the action of strong hydrochloric and sulphuric acids, the former disengaging chlorine, and protoxide of chlorine, and the latter chlorous acid.

The chlorates are mostly composed of 1 equiv. of protoxide and 1 of acid; hence the oxygen of the base is to that of the acid, as 1 to 5, or $Mo + ClO^5$.

None of the chlorates are found *native*, and those of baryta and potassa are the only ones which require particular notice.

Chlorate of Potassa ($KO + ClO^5$. 122.57) may be formed by transmitting chlorine gas through a concentrated solution of pure potassa, until the alkali is completely neutralized; the results are chloride of potassium and chlorate of potassa.*

Properties. Chlorate of potassa generally occurs in four and six-sided crystalline scales; colorless, and of a pearly lustre; soluble in 16 times its weight of water at 60°, and in $2\frac{1}{2}$ of boiling water. It is anhydrous, and fuses at 400° or 500°; by increase of temperature, it yields pure oxygen gas.

It acts very energetically upon many inflammable bodies.

.*Exp.* Put 2 grains of the salt into a mortar, with 1 grain of sulphur. Mix them accurately, and then strike the collected mass

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* For other processes, see Turner's Chemistry.

forcibly with the pestle; a loud detonation will ensue. Charcoal will produce a similar effect; or,

Exp. Instead of the sulphur, add a grain of phosphorus, and the detonation will be much louder.[*]

Many of the stronger acids decompose this salt.

Exp. Mix 2 parts of sugar with 1 of chlorate of potassa, and pour upon it a few drops of sulphuric acid; the decomposition will be attended by a sudden inflammation.

Exp. Put 2 parts of this salt with 1 of phosphorus into a wineglass filled with warm water, and then pour, by means of the dropping-tube, strong sulphuric or nitric acids directly upon the salt; the phosphorus will ignite under the water, owing to the development of oxygen from the decomposition of the salt.

Uses. It is employed in the preparation of *percussion powder*, in which this salt is substituted for nitre.

Matches are also made by first dipping them in melted sulphur, and then in a composition of chlorate of potassa, sugar, gum arabic, and vermilion.

Lucifer Matches have a similar composition.

An attempt was made in 1788 to substitute chlorate of potassa for nitre, in the manufacture of gunpowder; but, as might have been expected, on triturating the mixture, it exploded with violence, and destroyed several of the operators.

A few grains of this salt, put into water with a few drops of hydrochloric acid, form a convenient bleaching liquor.

Chlorate of Baryta ($BaO + ClO^5$. 152.12) is prepared by digesting for a few minutes a concentrated solution of chlorate of potassa, with a slight excess of silicated hydrofluoric acid; the alkali is precipitated in the form of an insoluble, double hydrofluate of silica and potassa, while chloric acid remains in the solution. The liquid, after filtration, is neutralized by carbonate of baryta, which throws down the excess of silicated hydrofluoric acid, and chlorate of baryta remains in solution.

Properties. It yields, on evaporation, crystals in the form of four-sided prisms, has a pungent taste, is soluble in 4 times its weight of cold, and in a smaller quantity of warm water. It is employed for forming chlorous acid.

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[*] The hands should be covered with gloves, and the mortar turned from the face.

6. PERCHLORATES.

The neutral protosalts of perchloric acid consist of 1 equiv. of acid and base, as is expressed by the formula $MO + ClO^7$. Most of the salts are deliquescent, very soluble in water, and soluble in alcohol. When heated to redness, they yield oxygen gas and metallic chlorides; and they are distinguished from the chlorates by not acquiring a yellow tint, on the addition of hydrochloric acid. — T.

The salts are formed by neutralizing the base with perchloric acid, excepting perchlorate of potassa, which is formed from the chlorate by heat and sulphuric acid.

7. CHLORITES.

The alkaline chlorites are formed by transmitting a current of chlorous acid gas into a solution of the pure alkalies; they are remarkable for their bleaching and oxidizing properties.

8. HYPOCHLORITES.

These salts may be formed by the action of chlorine gas on the alkaline bases; the most important of these is the hypochlorite of lime, which is well known as a bleaching powder.

9. IODATES.

The salts of iodic acid are very similar in character to those of chloric acid; in all the neutral protiodates, the oxygen of the base and acid is in the ratio of 1 to 5; the iodates are easily recognized by the action of de-oxidizing agents. Thus the sulphurous, phosphorous, hydrochloric and hydriodic acids deprive the iodic acid in the salt of its oxygen, and set the iodine at liberty. None of the iodates are found native; they are all insoluble, or sparingly soluble in water, excepting the iodates of the alkalies.

Iodate of Potassa ($KO + IO^5$. 213.45) may be obtained

by adding iodine to a concentrated, hot solution of pure potassa, until the alkali is completely neutralized. All the insoluble iodates may be procured from this salt; thus the iodate of baryta may be formed by mixing chloride of barium with a solution of iodate of potassa.

10.   *The Bromates* are very similar to the chlorates and iodates.

11.   PHOSPHATES.

There are three acids of phosphorus which are *isomeric* — the *phosphoric, pyrophosphoric,* and *metaphosphoric;* hence it becomes necessary to have three corresponding families of salts.

I.   *Phosphates.*   All the neutral protophosphates are soluble in water, and redden litmus paper, on which account they are called *superphosphates.*

The Triphosphates, except those of the pure alkalies, are sparingly soluble, or insoluble in water, but are all dissolved by nitric or phosphoric acids. The phosphates and diphosphates are changed by heat into pyrophosphates and metaphosphates; the phosphates of the pure alkalies are but partially decomposed by heat and combustible matter, and those of baryta, strontia, and lime, undergo no change; but most of the phosphates of the second class of metals are resolved into *hosphurets* by those agents.

The insoluble phosphates are decomposed when boiled with a strong solution of carbonate of potassa, or soda.

Triphosphate of Potassa ($3KO + P^2O^5$. 212.85) is formed by adding caustic potassa in excess to a solution of phosphoric acid.

Diphosphate of Potassa ($2KO.2HO + P^2O^5$. 165.7) is prepared by neutralizing the superphosphate of lime obtained from bones, with carbonate of potassa.

Phosphate of Potassa ($KO.2HO + P^2O^5$. 136.55) is formed by adding phosphoric acid to carbonate of potassa, until the liquid ceases to give a precipitate with chloride of barium, and then setting aside to crystallize.

Triphosphate of Soda. $3NaO + P^2O^5$. 165.3; in crystals, with 24 equiv. of water, $= 381.3$. This salt is prepared by adding pure soda to a solution of the succeeding compound, until the liquid feels soapy to the fingers; the solution is then evaporated until a pellicle forms; on cooling, the crystals which are deposited, are quickly re-dissolved in water, and are crystallized.

Properties. Triphosphate of soda crystallizes in colorless, six-sided, slender prisms, which have an alkaline taste and re-action; soluble in five times their weight of water at 60°, and in still less of hot water; the crystals undergo watery fusion at 170°, but are not decomposed at a red heat. The feeblest acid deprives the salt of $\frac{1}{3}$ of its soda.

Triphosphate of Soda and Basic Water. $2NaO.HO + P^2O^5$. 143; in crystals, with 24 equiv. of water. $= 359$. This salt is the most common of the phosphates, being manufactured on a large scale, by neutralizing, with carbonate of soda, the acid phosphate of lime, which is procured by the action of sulphuric acid on burned bones.

Properties. It crystallizes in oblique rhombic prisms, hence called *rhombic phosphate;* its crystals are always alkaline to test paper; effloresce in the air; soluble in four times their weight of cold, and twice their weight of warm water.

Acid Triphosphate of Soda and Basic Water ($NaO.2HO + P^2O^5$. 120.7; in crystals, with 2 eq. water, $= 138.7$) is commonly called the *biphosphate of soda,* and may be formed by adding phosphoric acid to a solution of carbonate of soda, until it ceases to give a precipitate with chloride of barium. When the solution is concentrated, it yields two different kinds of crystals without varying its composition.

Phosphate of Soda and Ammonia ($NaO.H^3N + P^2O^5$. 119.85, with 10 eq. water $= 209.85$) is easily prepared by mixing 1 equiv. of hydrochlorate of ammonia, and 2 equiv. of the rhombic phosphate of soda; each being previously dissolved in a small quantity of boiling water.

It is known as *microcosmic salt,* and is much employed as a flux in experiments with the blowpipe; when heated, it parts with its water and ammonia.

Diphosphate of Ammonia ($2H^3N + P^2O^5$. 105.7; in crys-tals, with 3 equiv. water, $= 132.7$) is prepared by adding am-monia to phosphoric acid until a precipitate is formed; the primary form of the crystals is an oblique rhombic prism

Phosphate of Ammonia ($H^3N + P^2O^5$. 88.55; in crystals, with 3 equiv. water, $= 115.55$) is formed in the same manner as the phosphate of potassa, crystallizes in octohedrons with a square base, and in right square prisms.

Bone Phosphate of Lime ($8CaO + 3P^2O^5$. 442.2) exists in bones after calcination, and falls as a gelatinous precipitate, on pouring chloride of calcium into a solution of rhombic phosphate of soda.

Triphosphate of Lime ($3CaO + P^2O^5$. 156.9) occurs in the mineral called *apatite*.

Diphosphate of Lime, ($2CaO + P^2O^5 + 1$ eq. basic water, $= 137.4$,) commonly called *neutral phosphate*, falls as a granu-lar precipitate, when the rhombic phosphate of soda is added, drop by drop, to chloride of calcium in excess.

Phosphate of Lime ($CaO + P^2O^5 + 2$ eq. basic water, $= 117.9$) is commonly called the *biphosphate*, from its acid re-action, and may be formed by dissolving either of the pre-ceding salts in a slight excess of phosphoric acid; it exists in urine.

Diphosphate of Magnesia. $2MgO + P^2O^5$. 112.8.
Triphosphate of Magnesia. $3MgO + P^2O^5$. 133.5.

Phosphate of Ammonia and Magnesia ($2MgO + 2H^3N + 10HO + P^2O^5$. 237.1) subsides as a pulverulent, granular precipitate from neutral alkaline solutions, containing phos-phoric acid, ammonia, and magnesia; it constitutes a variety of urinary concretions.

Triphosphate of Oxide of Silver is formed when the rhombic phosphate of soda is mixed in solution with nitrate of silver; it is a yellow powder when dry; on exposure to light, it is speedily blackened.

II. *Pyrophosphates.* The only salts of this family which have been studied, are those of soda and oxide of silver. They are thus constituted: —

Dipyrophosphate of Soda. $2NaO + P^2O^5$. $62.6 + 71.4 = 134$.
Dipyrophosphate in crystals, with 10 eq. water, $90 = 224$.
Acid Dipyrophosphate of Soda and Basic Water. $NaO.HO + P^2O^5 = 111.7$.
Pyrophosphate of Soda. $NaO.P^2O^5$. $31.3 + 71.4 = 102.7$.
Dipyrophosphate of Oxide of Silver. $2AgO + P^2O^5$. $232 + 71.4 = 303.4$.

III. *Metaphosphates.*

The only salts of this family yet examined are those of soda, baryta, and oxide of silver.

Metaphosphate of Soda. $NaO.P^2O^5$, 1 eq. Na, $31.5 + 1$ eq. P^2O^5, $71.4 = 102.7$.
Metaphosphate of Baryta. $BaO.P^2O^5$, 1 eq. BaO, $767 + 1$ eq. P^2O^5, $71.4 = 148.1$.
Metaphosphate of Silver. $AgO.P^2O^5$, 1 eq. AgO, $116 + 1$ eq. P^2O^5, $71.4 = 187.4$.
Sub-metaphosphate of Silver. $3AgO + 2P^2O^5$, 3 eq. AgO, $348 + 2$ eq. P^2O^5, $142.8 = 490.8$.

12. ARSENIATES.

Arsenic acid resembles the phosphoric in composition, and in many of its properties. The oxygen of the oxide and acid in their salts is as 1 to 5; salts of 2 equiv. of basic water are soluble in water, redden litmus paper, and are usually considered *bisalts;* those with 1 equiv. of basic water, in which the oxygen of the base and acid is as 2 to 5, are commonly called *neutral arseniates;* those without water are described as *subarseniates.* This acid has a strong tendency to form *trisalts;* some of the arseniates bear a red heat without decomposition, but all are decomposed when thus heated with charcoal, metallic arsenic being set at liberty.

The *soluble arseniates* are easily recognized by the tests for arsenic. (See p. 266.)

The *insoluble arseniates* are tested by boiling them in a strong solution of the fixed alkaline carbonates, by which they are deprived of their acid; the acid may then be detected in the usual way.

The following are the principal arseniates : —

Triarseniate of Soda. $3NaO + As^2O^5$, 3 eq. NaO, $93.7 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 209.3$.
Do. in crystals with 1 eq. water $216 = 425.3$.

Diarseniate of Soda and Basic Water. $2NaO + HO + As^2O^5$, eq. 187.

Acid Arseniate of Soda and Basic Water. $NaO + 2HO + As^2O^5aq. =$ 164.7.

Triarseniate of Potassa. $3KO + As^2O^5$, 3 eq. KO, $141.45 + 1$ eq As^2O^5, $115.4 = 256.85$.

Diarseniate of Potassa. $2KO + As^2O^5$, 2 eq. KO, $94.3 + 1$ eq As^2O^5, $115.4 = 209.7$.

Arseniate of Potassa. KO. As^2O^5, 1 eq. KO, $47.15 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 162.55$.

Diarseniate of Ammonia. $2H^3N + As^2O^5$, 2eq. NH^3, $34.3 + 1$ eq As^2O^5, $115.4 = 149.7$.

Arseniate of Ammonia. NH^3, As^2O^5, 1 eq. NH^3, $17.55 + 1$ eq As^2O^5, $115.4 = 132.55$.

Triarseniate of Baryta. $3BaO + As^2O^5$, 3 eq. BaO, $230.1 + 1$ eq As^2O^5, $115.4 = 345.5$.

Diarseniate of Baryta. $2BaO + As^2O^5$, 2 eq. BaO, $153.4 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 268.8$.

Arseniate of Byrata. $BaO + As^2O^5$, 1 eq. BaO, $76.7 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 192.1$.

Triarseniate of Lime. $3CaO + As^2O^5$, 3 eq. CaO, $85.5 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 200.9$.

Diarseniate of Lime. $2CaO + As^2O^5$, 2 eq. CaO, $57 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 172.4$.

Arseniate of Lime. $CaO + As^2O^5$, 1 eq. CaO, $28.5 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 143.9$.

Triarseniate of Lead. $3PbO + As^2O^5$, 3 eq. PbO, $334.8 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 450.2$.

Diarseniate of Lead. $2PbO + As^2O^5$. 2 eq. PbO, $223.2 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 338.6$.

Triarseniate of Ox-Silver. $2AgO + As^2O^5$, 3 eq. AgO, $348 + 1$ eq. As^2O^5, $115.4 = 463.4$.

13. ARSENITES.

The arsenites of potassa, soda, and ammonia, may be prepared by acting with those alkalies on arsenious acid.

They are very soluble in water, and have an acid re-action.

Most of the other arsenites are insoluble or sparingly soluble in water, but are dissolved by an excess of arsenious, nitric, and most other acids, with which their bases do not form insoluble compounds.

They are all decomposed when heated in close vessels.

The soluble salts, if neutral, are characterized by forming a yellow arseniate of oxide of silver, when mixed with nitrate of silver, and a green arsenite of protoxide of copper — *Scheele's green* — with sulphate of copper.

The arsenite of potassa is the active principle in *Fowler's arsenical solution.*

14. Chromates.

The chromates may generally be known by their yellow or red color. They may be known chemically by the green solution of chloride of chromium, formed by boiling any chromate with hydrochloric acid mixed with alcohol. They are all decomposed by heat and combustible matter.

Chromate of Potassa ($KO + CrO^3$. 99.15) is formed by heating to redness the native oxide of chromium and iron (*chromate of iron*) with nitrate of potassa, when chromic acid is generated, and unites with the alkali of the nitre.

Properties. Taste cool, bitter, and disagreeable, soluble in boiling water, and insoluble in alcohol.

Bichromate of Potassa ($KO + 2CrO^3$. 151.15) is of great importance in dyeing. It is prepared by acidulating the neutral chromate with sulphuric, or, still better, with acetic acid, and allowing the solution to crystallize by spontaneous evaporation.

Properties. When slowly formed, four-sided rhombic prisms are deposited, which are anhydrous, and of a rich red color; soluble in 10 times their weight of water at 60° and the solution reddens litmus.

The insoluble chromates, such as those of baryta, zinc, lead, mercury, and silver, are prepared by mixing the soluble salts of those bases with a solution of chromate of potassa.

Chromate of Lead. $PbO + CrO^3$. 163.6. This is the yellow chromate, and is extensively used as a pigment. *Chromate of oxide of zinc* may be used for the same purpose.

15. Borates.

The boracic is a feeble acid, and neutralizes imperfectly; hence the borates, such as soda, potassa, and ammonia, have an alkaline re-action; hence, also, the more powerful acids separate the alkali from boracic acid, although, at a red heat, boracic acid, owing to its fixed nature, decomposes *every salt* whose acid is volatile. The borates of the alkalies are solu

14*

ble in water, but most of the other borates are sparingly soluble; they are not decomposed by heat, though remarkable for their fusibility. They are distinguished by the following character: —

By digesting any borate in an excess of strong sulphuric acid, evaporating to dryness, and boiling the residue in strong alcohol, the solution will burn with a *green flame.*

Biborate of Soda, ($2BO^3 + NaO$. 191.1; in crystals, with 10 equiv. of water, $= 101.01$,) commonly called *borax,* occurs native in certain lakes in Thibet. It is imported from India under the name of *tincal,* which, after purification constitutes the *refined borax* of commerce.

Properties. It crystallizes in hexahedral prisms. The crystals are efflorescent; when heated, they lose their water of crystallization, fuse, and form, on cooling, a crystalline mass, called *glass of borax.*

Borax is much used as a flux for welding iron and steel

Boracite is a biborate of magnesia.

A new biborate of soda has been lately described; better as a flux, for the use of jewellers, than the preceding.

16. CARBONATES.

The carbonates are distinguished from all other salts, by being decomposed with effervescence, owing to the escape of carbonic acid gas, by nearly all acids.

All the carbonates, except those of potassa, soda, and lithia, are decomposed by heat; and all, except those of potassa soda, and ammonia, are of sparing solubility in pure water but all are soluble in excess of carbonic acid. Several of them occur native.

Carbonate of Potassa ($KO + CO^2$. 69.27) is procured by lixiviating the ashes of land plants, and boiling the lye — a process which is performed on a large scale in Russia, and in this country. This is the impure carbonate of commerce. known by the names *potash* and *pearlash,* and is of great utility in the arts, especially in the manufacture of soap and glass As thus prepared, it always contains other compounds, such

as sulphate of potassa, and chloride of potassium.   For chemical purposes, it is obtained by heating cream of tartar to redness, when the acid is decomposed, and a pure carbonate of potassa mixed with charcoal remains.   The charcoal is removed by solution in water, and evaporation.

Properties.   Taste strongly alkaline, and slightly caustic; changes the vegetable purple colors to green; soluble in less than an equal weight of water at 60°; deliquesces on exposure to the air; is insoluble in pure alcohol, and fuses at a full red heat, but undergoes no other change.

Bicarbonate of Potassa ($KO + 2CO^2$. 91.39; in crystals, with 1 equiv. water, $= 100.39$) is made by transmitting a current of carbonic acid gas through a solution of the carbonate.   This salt is milder than the carbonate, into which it is converted by a low red heat.   It does not deliquesce on exposure, and requires four times its weight of water at 60° for solution.

Carbonate of Soda ($NaO + CO^2$. 53.42; in crystals, with 10 equiv. water, $= 143.42$) was formerly obtained from the ashes of several species of sea-weed, but it is now obtained from common salt, (*chloride of sodium.*)   The salt being first converted into sulphate of soda by the action of sulphuric acid and heat, is acted upon by chalk heated with small coal.   The fused mass is called *black ash,* and from it the pure carbonate is obtained by dissolving in boiling water and crystallizing.

Properties.   Crystallizes in rhombic prisms; effloresces, and dissolves in its water of crystallization when heated, and becomes anhydrous by continued heat; soluble in about 2 parts of cold, and in less than its weight of boiling water.

Bicarbonate of Soda ($NaO + 2CO^3$. 75.54; in crystals, with 1 equiv. water, $= 84.54$) is formed by the same process as the bicarbonate of potassa, and, like that salt, is much milder than the carbonate.

Sesquicarbonate of Soda ($2NaO + 3CO^2$. 4HO. 164.96) is found *native* in Africa, on the banks of soda lakes, and is called *trona.*

Carbonate of Ammonia ($H^3N + CO^2$. 39.27) is obtained by mixing dry carbonic acid over mercury, with twice its volume of ammoniacal gas.   It is a dry, white powder, and

has an alkaline re-action ; its odor is pungent, resembling ammonia.

Bicarbonate of Ammonia ($H^3N.2HO + 2CO^2$. 79.39) is obtained by transmitting a current of carbonic acid gas through a solution of carbonate of ammonia, and evaporating the solution by gentle heat. It is deposited in right rhombic prisms ; inodorous, and nearly tasteless.

Sesquicarbonate of Ammonia ($2H^3N.2HO^2 + 3CO^2$, 118.66) is prepared by heating 1 part of hydrochlorate of ammonia, mixed with $1\frac{1}{2}$ of carbonate of lime, carefully dried.

The *chloride of calcium* remains in the retort, and this salt is sublimed; it is hard, compact, translucent, of a crystalline texture, and ammoniacal odor.

Carbonate of Baryta ($BaO + CO^2$. 98.82) occurs native in the mineral *Witherite*. It may be prepared by mixing a soluble salt of baryta with any of the alkaline carbonates.

Properties. This salt is anhydrous, very insoluble, and highly poisonous.

Carbonate of Strontia ($SrO + CO^2$. 73.92) is known by the name of *strontianite ;* it may be prepared in the same manner as carbonate of baryta ; it is soluble in excess of carbonic acid.

Carbonate of Lime ($Ca + CO^2$. 50.62) is a very abundant natural production, occurring under a great variety of forms, such as limestone, marble, chalk, Iceland spar, etc.; often in regular crystals. Carbonic acid and lime have a strong affinity for each other ; and hence moist lime, or lime in solution, when exposed to the air, absorbs the acid contained in the atmosphere, and carbonate of lime is formed. It is sparingly soluble in water, but soluble in excess of carbonic acid; the crust formed on the top of lime water is carbonate of lime.

Carbonate of Magnesia ($MgO + CO^2$. 42.82; in crystals, with 3 equiv. of water, $= 69.82$) is found native in the mineral called *magnesite*, which is nearly pure anhydrous carbonate of magnesia. It is obtained in minute, transparent

hexagonal prisms, when a solution of the *bicarbonate* evaporates slowly in an open vessel; the crystals lose their water, and become opaque by a very gentle heat, and even in dry air, at 60°. They are decomposed by water.

A Carbonate of Magnesia, consisting of 4 equiv. of water, 3 of acid, and 4 of magnesia, falls as a white powder when carbonate of potassa is added to a hot solution of sulphate of magnesia; this salt is very insoluble, requiring 9000 parts of hot water for solution.

Carbonate of Protoxide of Iron ($FeO + CO^2$. 58.12) is a very abundant natural production, occurring either in masses, or in rhombohedrons. It exists also in most of the chalybeate mineral waters. It may be formed by mixing an alkaline carbonate with sulphate of protoxide of iron. It acts as a tonic upon the animal system.

Dicarbonate of Protoxide of Copper ($2CuO + Co^2$. 101.32) is found native as a hydrate, in the mineral called *malachite*, of a beautiful green color.

It may be obtained by precipitation from a hot solution of sulphate of protoxide of copper, by carbonate of soda or potassa; this is the *mineral green* of painters.

When the hydrate is boiled for a long time in water, it loses both carbonic acid and combined water, and the color changes to a brown.

The *blue copper ore*, and the blue pigment called *verditer*,* have a similar composition.

Carbonate of Protoxide of Lead ($PbO + CO^2$. 133.72) is the *white lead* of painters. It occurs native in white prismatic crystals. As an article of commerce, it is prepared from the subacetate by a current of carbonic acid; also by

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* *Refiners' Verditer*, made by silver refiners, is composed of 3 equiv. of oxide and 4 of carbonic acid.

A very good *verditer* is formed by adding a quantity of lime to nitrate of copper sufficient to throw down the oxide. The green precipitate must be washed, and nearly dried upon a strainer. If it is then mixed with 10 per cent. of fresh lime, the color will become blue. It must now be dried, and is then fit for use.

exposing metallic lead in minute division to air and moisture, or by the action of the vapor of vinegar on thin sheets of lead.

Dicarbonate of Peroxide of Mercury, $2HgO^2 + CO^2$. 458.12. When a solution of the nitrate of peroxide of mercury is decomposed by carbonate of soda, this salt falls as an ochre-yellow precipitate.

17. DOUBLE CARBONATES

The most remarkable of these salts is the *double carbonate of lime and magnesia,* ($MgO.CO^2 + CaO.CO_2$. 93.44,) forming the minerals called *dolomite, bitter spar,* and *pearl spar.*

The rock called *magnesian limestone* is an impure variety of dolomite.

Barytocalcite is a *double carbonate of baryta and lime.* $CaO.CO^2 + BaO.CO^2$. 149.44.

Carbonate of Soda, fused with the carbonate of baryta, strontia, or lime, in the ratio of their equiv., yields crystalline, definite compounds. In the same manner, also, sulphate of soda, heated with the above carbonates, yields double salts, which are very similar.

18. SILICATES.

Silicic Acid is one of the most powerful acids. The salts which it forms, although very numerous and important compounds, have not hitherto been fully investigated. The silicates are remarkable for their great variety of composition; they are composed of from 1 equiv. of base and 6 of silicic acid to 1 of acid and 3 of base. Those most frequently met with are, —

1. *Simple Silicates,* or those composed of 1 equiv. of base and 1 of silicic acid. These are a very numerous class of natural compounds, as, silicate of manganese, zinc, glucina, cerium, zirconia, iron, &c.

2. *Bisilicates,* in which 2 equiv. of silicic acid are com-

bined with 1 of base. There are many native compounds of this order: tabular spar is a bisilicate of lime; bottle glass is another example.

3. *Trisilicates*, in which 3 equiv. of silicic acid are united to 1 of base. The most important of the trisilicates is *plastic clay*, which is a *trisilicate of alumina*.

4. *Quadrisilicates*, which are principally artificial compounds, among which are crown glass, French window glass, flint glass, and enamel.

In addition, it should be remarked, that there are a very great number of simple minerals, which are composed as above, or by the union of silicic acid with other acids and with bases. In fact, the greater portion of the crust of the globe is composed of silicates. The soils, rocks, and mountains, are but masses of *silicates*.

The silicates are all fusible before the compound blowpipe, and all, except those of magnesia and alumina, in a forge fire. Those of 2 or more bases are most easily fused; and those of fusible bases are more easily melted than those whose bases are more refractory.

In the separation of the metals from their ores, such matters are added as will form with the earthy parts of the ores fusible silicates. These float like glass on the surface of the reduced metal, and are easily removed.

All kinds of glass are formed by heating siliceous sand with alkaline carbonates. When heat is applied, the alkali melts, and the sand (silicic acid) combines with the alkali, while the carbonic acid escapes in the form of a gas, causing the mass to swell to twice its former bulk. When the carbonic acid all escapes, the mass subsides, and is called *frit*. This is then put into a refractory vessel, and placed in a furnace, where it is heated until it is melted and becomes glass. (See page 221.)

The *silicates* are all *insoluble*, excepting those of potassa and soda. Those compounds formed by the union of 1 or 2 equiv. of silicic acid are more soluble than those of 3 or 4. The *double silicates* of these alkalies, that is, the union

of another acid or base, renders the compounds still less soluble.

The silicate of alumina and soda, which is combined with sulphuret of sodium in *lapis lazuli* is used by painters, under the name of *ultramarine*, and is a very important compound.

The silicates are the most important chemical compounds ; forming, as they do, almost the entire mass of the soil in every country, their influence upon vegetation is constant and universal. To the agriculturist they are compounds of great interest, and should be made the subjects of intense study.

SECTION 3.

ORDER II.—HYDRO-SALTS.

This order includes those salts the acid or base of which contains hydrogen. The salts formerly called *muriates* or *hydrochlorates* of metallic oxides, are now generally described as chlorides of those metals, and also the salts of *hydriodic* and most other hydracids. The only salts which are included in this order are formed by the hydracids with *ammonia* and *phosphureted hydrogen*.

Hydrochlorate of Ammonia. $H^3N + HCL$. 53.57. This is the *sal ammoniac* of commerce, and was formerly imported from Egypt, where it was prepared from the soot of camels' dung by sublimation ; but it is now formed by several processes. The most usual is to decompose the *sulphate of ammonia**[*]** by the chloride of sodium or magnesium.

It occurs *native*, in masses and in crystals, in the vicinity of volcanoes.

Process. It may be produced directly, by introducing liquid ammonia into one retort, (see Fig. 54, p. 113,) and HCL into the other, and apply heat. As the two gases pass

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[*] This sulphate is obtained by digesting with gypsum the impure carbonate of ammonia, procured from the destructive distillation of bones and other animal substances, so as to form an insoluble carbonate of lime and a soluble sulphate of ammonia.

into the receiver, a white cloud appears, which is hydrochlorate of ammonia in fine powder.

Properties. This salt has a pungent, saline taste, and is insoluble in water and in alcohol; it sublimes at a temperature below that of ignition, without fusion or decomposition.

Uses. Used in the arts for a variety of purposes, in tinning copper, to prevent oxidation, and by dyers.

When dissolved in nitric acid, it forms the *aqua regia*, which is employed for dissolving gold, instead of nitro-hydrochloric acid.

Hydriodate of Ammonia ($H^3N.HI.$ 144.45) is a white powder, very soluble and deliquescent.

Hydrobromate of Ammonia ($H^3N.HBr.$ 96.55) is a white anhydrous salt.

Hydrofluate of Ammonia. $H^3N.HI.$ 36.83. See Turner, 5th edit. p. 469.

Hydrosulphate of Ammonia ($H^3N + HS.$ 34.25) is formed by heating a mixture of 1 part of sulphur, 2 of sal-ammoniac, and 2 of unslacked lime. It is used as a reagent, and for this purpose it is formed by saturating a solution of ammonia with hydrosulphuric acid.

Hydrocyanate of Ammonia. $H^3N + HC^2N.$ 44.54.
Hydrosulphocyanate of Ammonia. $H^3N + HCyS^2.$ 76.74.
Trifluoborate of Ammonia. $3H^3N + BF^3.$ 118.39.
Difluoborate of Ammonia. $2H^3N + BF^3.$ 101.24
Fluoborate of Ammonia. $H^3N + BF^3.$ 84.09.
Fluosilicate of Ammonia. $H^3N + SiF.$ 43.33.
Carbosulphate of Ammonia. $H^3N + CS^2.$ 55.47.[*]

Salts of Phosphureted Hydrogen.

Phosphureted Hydrogen resembles ammonia in composition, and in some of its properties; it is a feeble alkaline base, and combines with some of the hydracids. The salt

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[*] See Turner, 5th edit. p. 469.

best known is the hydriodate of phosphureted hydrogen, which is composed of 127.3 parts or 1 eq. acid, and 34.4 parts or 1 eq. base, and crystallizes in cubes.

SECTION 4.

ORDER III.—SULPHUR-SALTS.

The *sulphur-salts* are *double sulphurets*, just as the oxy-salts are *double oxides*.

The *sulphur-salts*, with two metals, are so constituted, that if the sulphur in each were replaced by an equivalent quantity of oxygen, it would form an oxy-salt.

The close analogy between the two orders of salts appears also from the fact, that hydrosulphuric and hydrosulphocyanic acids unite both with ammonia and sulphur bases.

The principal *sulphur bases* are the protosulphurets of potassium, sodium, lithium, barium, strontium, calcium, magnesium, and the hydrosulphate of ammonia; and the *sulphur acids* are the sulphurets of arsenic, antimony, tungsten, molybdenum, tellurium, tin, and gold, together with hydrosulphuric acid, bisulphuret of carbon, and sulphuret of selenium.

The sulphur-salts are divided into families which contain the same sulphur acid; the generic name of each family is formed from the sulphur acid terminated with *sulphuret;* thus the salts which contain persulphuret of arsenic or hydrosulphuric acid, as the sulphur acid, are termed *arsenio-sulphurets* and *hydrosulphurets*, and a salt composed of those sulphur acids, with sulphuret of potassium, is termed *arsenio-sulphuret*, and *hydrosulphuret* of sulphuret of potassium, or simply *hydrosulphuret of potassium.**

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* Dr. Hare has adopted a method of naming the sulphur-salts founded on the nomenclature of the oxy-salts. He calls the electro-negative sulphuret an acid, and forms its name by changing the termination of the element with which the sulphur is combined into *ic*, and

1. HYDRO-SULPHURETS.

The salts of this family have hydrosulphuric acid for their electro-negative ingredient; most of them are soluble in water, are decomposed by exposure to the air and by acids.

Hydro-sulphuret of Potassium. KS + HS. 72.35.

The anhydrous salt may be obtained by heating to low redness anhydrous carbonate of potassa in a tubulated retort, through which a current of hydrosulphuric acid is transmitted. It forms, when cold, a white, crystalline solid. The hydrous salt has an acrid, alkaline, and bitter taste.

Hydro-sulphuret of Sodium. NaS + HS. 56.5.

Hydro-sulphuret of Lithium. LS + HS. 43.2.

Hydro-sulphuret of Barium (BaS + HS. 101.9) is formed by the action of hydrosulphuric acid on a solution of baryta, excluded from the air. It crystallizes in four-sided prisms, and is very soluble.

Hydro-sulphuret of Strontium. SrS + HS. Eq. 77.

Hydro-sulphuret of Calcium. CaS + HS. Eq. 53.7.

Hydro-sulphuret of Magnesium. MgS + HS. Eq. 45.9.

2. HYDRO-SULPHOCYANIDES.

The acid of these salts is the hydrosulphocyanuric acid.

Hydro-sulphocyanide of Potassium (KS+HCyS^2. 114.84) is a white, crystalline solid, soluble in water and in alcohol.

Hydro-sulphocyanide of Hydrosulphate of Ammonia (H^{3}N + HS) + (HCyS^2. 93.84) exists in long, brilliant crystals, of a lemon-yellow color.

3. CARBO-SULPHURETS.

The acid of this family is the bisulphuret of carbon.

Carbo-sulphuret of Potassium (KS + CS^2. 93.57) is prepared by agitating bisulphuret of carbon with a strong alcoholic solution of protosulphuret of potassium. The liquid, when set at rest, separates into three layers, the lowest of which is the carbo-sulphuret of potassium. On evaporation,

prefixing *sulph* or *sulpho.* Thus, persulphuret of arsenic he calls *sulpharsenic acid*, and its sulphur salts, *sulpharseniates.* Hydrosulphuric acid he denominates *sulphydric acid*, and its salts *sulphydrates;* so of the rest.

a deliquescent, yellow, crystalline salt is deposited, sparingly soluble in alcohol.

The *Carbo-sulphuret of Sodium* ($NaS + CS^2$. 77.72) and the *Carbo-sulphuret of Lithium* ($LS + CS^2$. 64.42) are similar to the preceding.

Carbo-sulphuret of the Hydrosulphate of Ammonia (H^3N $HS + CS^2$. 72.57) is a very volatile salt, and must be kept in bottles tightly corked. Exposed to the air, it absorbs water and becomes red.*

4. Arsenio-sulphurets.

Each of the three sulphurets of arsenic is capable of acting as a sulphur acid; giving rise to three distinct families of sulphur salts, *arsenio-protosulphurets, arsenio-sesquisulphurets*, and *arsenio-persulphurets*. The persulphuret of arsenic is the most powerful of these acids. The arsenio-persulphurets of the alkalies and alkaline earths, are very soluble in water, have a lemon-yellow color when anhydrous, but colorless when combined with water of crystallization, or in solution; but those of the second class of metals are generally insoluble.

5. Molybdo-sulphurets.

The acid in this family is the *tersulphuret of molybdenum*. The most remarkable of these salts is

Molybdo-sulphuret of Potassium, ($KS + MoS^3$. 151.25,) which is formed by decomposing a solution of molybdate of potassa with hydrosulphuric acid; on evaporation, beautiful crystals with four and eight sides are deposited. Berzelius describes this compound as the most beautiful which chemistry can produce. The crystals, by transmitted light, are ruby-red, and their surfaces, while moist, and also the solution which yields them, shine like the wings of certain insects, with a metallic lustre, of a rich green tint.

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* *The carbo-sulphuret of barium*, ($BaS + CS^2$. 123.12,) *the carbo-sulphuret of strontium*, ($SrS + CS^2$. 98.22,) and *the carbo-sulphuret of calcium*, ($CaS + CS^2$. 74.92,) may be obtained by acting on bisulphuret of carbon with a solution of the protosulphurets of these metals. The solutions are orange or brown, and the crystals, when dry, are of a citron-yellow color. *Carbo-sulphuret of magnesium.* $MgS + CS^2$. 67.12.

6. ANTIMONIO-SULPHURETS.

The acid of this family is the sesquisulphuret of antimony, and the only salt examined is the *antimonio-sulphuret of potassium*, which may be formed by mixing 2 parts of carbonate of potassa, 4 of sesquisulphuret of antimony, and 1 of sulphur, and fusing the mixture.

7. TUNGSTO-SULPHURETS.

The best known of this family is potassium. When a solution of tungstate of potassa is decomposed by hydrosulphuric acid, and the solution evaporates, anhydrous, quadrilateral, flat prisms are deposited, of a pale-red color, which is the tungstosulphuret of potassium. This salt unites with tungstate of potassa as a double salt.

SECTION 5.

ORDER IV.—HALOID SALTS.

This order includes substances composed, like the preceding salts, of bi-elementary compounds, one or both of which are analogous to sea-salt in composition. The *haloid acids* belong generally to the electro-negative, and the *haloid bases* to the electro-positive metals.

The following are the principal groups or families : —

1. *Hydrargo-chlorides.* The haloid acid is the bichloride of mercury ; they are obtained by mixing their ingredients in the ratio of combination, and setting aside the solution to crystallize.

2. *Auro-chlorides.* The acid in this family is the terchloride of gold ; they are prepared like the preceding ; most of them have an orange, or a yellow. color.

3. *Platino-chlorides.* The haloid acids in this family are the *protochloride* and *bichloride* of platinum.

4. *Palladio-chlorides* are salts in which the chlorides of palladium act as haloid acids, combining with many of the metallic chlorides.

5. *Rhodio-chlorides* are formed by the action of sesqui-chloride of rhodium on the chlorides of potassium and sodium.

6. *The Chlorides of Iridium* and *Osmium* are the haloid acids of the *iridio-chlorides* and the *osmio-chlorides*.

7. *Oxy-chlorides.* This family embraces a large number of compounds, in which a metallic oxide is united with a chloride, generally of the same metal, but often of other metals. These salts are commonly termed *submuriates*, on the supposition that they consist of hydrochloric acid, combined with two or more equivalents of an oxide.

Oxy-chlorides of Iron. When the crystallized protochloride of iron is strongly heated in close vessels, a deep green oxy-chloride, in scaly crystals, is formed.

Oxy-chloride of Copper constitutes the paint called *Brunswick green*, and is prepared by exposing metallic copper to hydrochloric acid. This is the compound formed by the action of sea-water on the copper of vessels.

Oxy-chloride of Lead may be formed by adding pure ammonia to a hot solution of chloride of lead; another oxy-chloride — the pigment called *patent yellow* — is prepared by the action of moist sea-salt on litharge.

8. *Chlorides with Ammonia.* The perchlorides of tin and some other metals absorb ammonia at common temperatures, and most of the other chlorides absorb it when gently heated; but most of these compounds lose their ammonia, on exposure to the air, and nearly all, by heat.

9. *Chlorides with Phosphureted Hydrogen.* These are very similar to those with ammonia, and are not of sufficient importance to be inserted in this place.

10. *Double Iodides.* These compounds have not yet been closely studied, but the iodides probably form with each other an extensive family of salts.

The most important are the

Platino-biniodide of Potassium, prepared by digesting an excess of biniodide of platinum in a concentrated solution of iodide of potassium, and the *Platino-biniodide of Hydrogen*, which is prepared by acting on biniodide of platinum with a cold dilute solution of hydriodic acid.

11. *Oxy-iodides.* The best known of this family are those formed by the oxide and iodide of lead.

The *double bromides* have not yet been studied.

12. *Double Fluorides.* There are several extensive families of these salts, in which the fluorides of boron, silicon, titanium, and other electro-negative metals, are the acids, and the fluorides of the electro-positive metals are the bases.

13. *Double Cyanides and Ferro-cyanides.* The double cyanides constitute a large and important family of salts, of which the principal are the ferro-cyanides, ferro-sesqui-cyanides, zinco-cyanides, cobalto-cyanides, nicco-cyanides, and cupro-cyanides, in which the proto-cyanide of iron, sesqui-cyanide of iron, cyanide of zinc, cobalt, nickel, and copper, are the electro-negative cyanides. (See Turner's Elements, p. 437.)

CHAPTER IV.

ORGANIC CHEMISTRY.

Organic chemistry treats of those substances which are of animal or vegetable origin, and which are therefore called *organic.* Organic bodies differ from inorganic compounds in several particulars.

1. Of the fifty-seven or fifty-eight simple substances, only four, carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen, enter in any considerable quantities into the composition of organic compounds. In addition to these four elements, which are called *organic,* a few other constituents are found, as iron, silicon, potassium, sulphur, phosphorus, &c., but these substances exist in small quantities.

2. Organic compounds differ from inorganic in the greater number of atoms of which they are composed. Thus olive oil contains 270 simple atoms, spermacetti 458, and albumen 883, hence their composition is much more complex than inorganic compounds.

3. A third characteristic of organic substances is the facility with which they may be decomposed, and especially in

being, without exception, decomposed by a red heat, and often by a lower temperature; if heated in the open air, they are converted chiefly into water and carbonic acid.

4. With a few exceptions, organic bodies cannot be formed artificially, by the direct union of their elements. They are formed under the influence of *vitality*. There are, however, three classes into which they may be divided in respect to their origin.

The first class includes those bodies which are the elements of an organized and living being. They are formed under the influence of life, and, while connected with the animal or plant, do not obey the ordinary laws of affinity; such are the animal and vegetable tissues, the blood, &c. They are *organized*, rather than *organic* bodies, and yield to affinity only when *life* is extinct. Their composition cannot be effected by any chemical reactions, or explained by any chemical formula. They are the products of *life*.

The second class includes such substances as *organized* bodies secrete, or as are produced from the elements which nourish organized bodies; such are sugar, starch, albumen, oils, resins, gums, &c.

The third class includes those bodies which are formed from the decomposition of the two preceding classes, and are very numerous.

Many of the second and third classes of compounds may be formed artificially by ordinary affinity, or by a force called *catalitic*. The third class resemble, in many respects, inorganic compounds, but are distinguished from them still by their greater complexity of composition.

Catalitic force. Organic compounds manifest a strong tendency to decomposition, when exposed to the air or to the influence of chemical agents. The more complex bodies are thereby easily reduced to those more simple. Thus, when yeast is added to sugar, the latter is converted into carbonic acid and alcohol. The yeast acts by its presence, and is called the *catalitic agent*. This agent must be in a state of

decomposition in order to induce a similar state in the other body. The law of catalysis is, that molecules in motion impart their motion to the molecules of other bodies with which they are brought in contact.

Analysis of Organic Compounds.

The elementary analysis of an organic compound is effected by burning the substance with *oxide of copper*. This oxide readily yields its oxygen to the carbon and hydrogen of the substance, forming carbonic acid with the former, and water with the latter. These new compounds are collected, and from their weight may be known the weight of the carbon and of the hydrogen.   •

The loss of oxygen in the oxide of copper is also noted, and compared with the quantity in the carbonic acid and water. The excess of the latter over the former, is the amount derived from the substance under examination ; and, if there be no such excess, it is inferred that there was none in the substance.

Although this process is very simple, it requires a special apparatus, and many specific directions to insure accurate results. The following is a general description of the apparatus. For more minute details the student is referred to larger works, and such as treat of analytical processes, such as those of Liebig, Rose and others.

The apparatus consists of a glass tube, free from lead, 14 inches in length, and half an inch in diameter, drawn to a

Fig. 108.

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point, and sealed at one extremity, a, Fig. 108, and open
at the other. This tube is then filled three-fourths full
of pure oxide of copper that has just been ignited in a
crucible, intimately mixed with a few grains of the body to
be examined, (suppose it to be sugar,) in a porcelain mortar,
a little pure oxide being first put into the sealed end. The
tube is then filled within one inch of its open end with pure
oxide. By this process the mixture will absorb some mois-
ture from the air, which must be expelled. To abstract this
moisture, a small tube filled with dry chloride of calcium is
inserted through a cork in the open extremity of the com-
bustion tube c, while the other end of the small tube is con-
nected with an exhausting syringe b. The tube containing
the mixture is then placed in sand heated to 250°, and the
air exhausted, and allowed to pass in several times, when all
the moisture will be taken out of the mixture and absorbed
by the chloride. The tube is then placed in a furnace made
of sheet-iron, (B, Fig. 109,) and the open extremity of it con-
nected with a tube A, containing fragments of dry chloride of
calcium, for the purpose of condensing the water generated
by the combustion. Connected with A, by a piece of India-
rubber tube, is a glass instrument, D, consisting of 5 bulbs,
connected together as in Fig. 109, the 3 lower a nearly filled
with caustic potassa in solution, the weight of which must be
accurately determined. To ascertain whether all the joints
are tight, a few bubbles of air are drawn through the open
end of the potash tube, and if the liquid remains raised a lit-
tle above the level on the other side, everything is prepared
for the next stage of the process, which is to heat the tube to
redness, with ignited charcoal, h, first near to A, and then ex-
tend it slowly towards the other extremity by means of a
screen which is made to slide along, as in Fig. After the

Fig. 109.
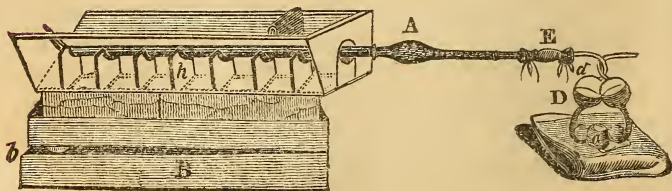
combustion is completed, the combustion tube is broken off, and the products are weighed. The water will be in the tube A, and is determined by the increase of the weight of the chloride; by this the quantity of hydrogen in the substance is found. The carbon is in the form of carbonic acid, united to the potassa *a*, and the amount of it is easily determined. By this process the quantity of hydrogen and carbon are very accurately ascertained.

Some organic substances, as *volatile liquids*, are prepared for combustion in a different manner. A bulb, *b*, with a narrow neck, Fig. 110, is carefully weighed, then filled with the liquid and hermetically sealed, and weighed again, to determine the quantity of liquid. The end, *a*, is then broken off and inserted in the combustion tube, which is filled with oxide of copper, and arranged as in Fig. 109. By heating the bulb, the liquid is volatilized, and passing through the oxide of cop-

Fig. 110.

per, is decomposed. The products are collected, and the composition determined, in the same manner as in the preceding analysis.
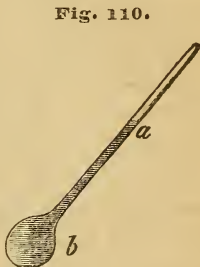
In the analysis of bodies, such as fats, containing much hydrogen, chromate of lead is used instead of oxide of copper. To ascertain the quantity of nitrogen present, the substance is heated with excess of carbonate of potassa, when all the nitrogen will be given off in the form of ammonia, and the amount thus accurately ascertained.

To determine the quantity of chlorine, the vapor is passed over quicklime heated to redness, chloride of calcium is formed, and this is decomposed by nitrate of silver. From the weight of the chloride of silver, the quantity of chlorine is easily deduced. Some other substances are found in organic bodies, in small quantities, such as sulphur and metallic oxides.

Constitution and Classification of Organic bodies.

1. *Theory of Compound Radicals.* In inorganic chemistry simple elements, as we have seen, are united two and two, or in a binary arrangement; thus, oxygen and sulphur unite to form SO^3, oxygen and potassium unite to form potassa, and then sulphuric acid and potassa unite to form sulphate of potassa, $(SO^3 + KO)$ the acid being regarded as negative and the alkali as positive. It has been supposed that this *binary* arrangement applies to organic compounds, but as these are composed often of several simple elements, it is necessary to regard the compound of two or more elements as possessing the properties of a simple body. Thus cyanogen, composed of NC^2, performs, in its various combinations, the part of an element. So when crystallized oxalate of ammonia, represented by the formula $NH^3.HO.C^2.O^3$. is distilled, a white tasteless powder is obtained, which has the composition NH^2. C^2O^2, or it is oxalate of ammonia deprived of 3 equivalents of water; it is called *oxamide.* On heating this in contact with potassa, it takes up 3 atoms of water, and is converted into oxalate of ammonia; hence it is inferred that there exists a compound of 1 equiv. of N. and 2 equiv. of H—NH^2. This body has never been *isolated,* but has been supposed to act as a simple element, and has been called *amide* or *ammidogen ;* symbol. *Ad.* This body combines with potassium, and forms *potassamide,* NH^2K, and also with several other bodies.

In the same manner, by experiments upon the oil of bitter almonds, it is inferred that benzoic acid ($C^{14}H^5.O^2HO$) has a base, which has been called *benzoyl,* symb. *Bz.,* having the formula $C^{14}H^5O^2$, which also performs the part in composition of an element, and constitutes the base of a large class of compounds.

Ether also is supposed to have a base, (C^4H^5) which is capable of combining with O.Cl.Br., giving rise to sulphuric,

chloric, and bromic ethers. All such bodies performing in composition the part of an element, are called *compound radicals*. Such radicals are supposed to exist in a large number of compounds, and have been made the basis of the classification of those bodies. They are, however, with a few exceptions, as *cyanogen, mellone,* and *kakodyle,* purely *hypothetical* bodies, that is, have never been isolated from their compounds. These hypothetical compounds are not supposed to exist in all organic bodies, and it is as yet impossible to make them the basis of a *general* classification. With regard to those bodies which are supposed to contain these compound radicals, some chemists, as M. Gerhardt, have explained their formation, and the changes which they pass through, on a theory which entirely dispenses with them. They can be of no use, unless it be to give us a clearer idea of the changes which take place in organic compounds; and if those changes are equally well explained on any theory which is capable of demonstration, it would seem to be introducing numerous hypotheses which can be of no possible service, instead of a simple statement of facts. But, as it is desirable to present the subject of chemistry in its present state, we have concluded to describe those bodies which are supposed to contain such compound radicals, in one *group*, or as one class. Should M. Gerhardt's theory be received by chemists, it will not only render the doctrine of compound radicals unnecessary, but will probably require some changes in nomenclature, changes which he has made in his work. (See Gerhardt's Précis de Chimie Organique.)

2. *Theory of Substitutions.* When oxygen, chlorine, bromine, and iodine, unite with various compounds, the latter give out hydrogen, and the process is termed *dehydrogenizing.* Thus, when dry chlorine gas is passed into pure oil of bitter almonds, ($C^{14}HO^2+H$,) it loses its atom of hydrogen, and an atom of chlorine is substituted, and the compound consists of $C^{14}H^5O^2+Cl$, a chloride of benzoyl. This and

other analogous facts have been generalized by Dumas, and the following general conclusions made :—

(1.) That when a body is subjected to the dehydrogenizing action of O, Cl, Br, and I, it gains one of the latter for each atom it loses of hydrogen.

(2.) But if the body contain water, it loses its hydrogen without any substitution. If, after this, hydrogen is extracted, the substitution proceeds as before.

(3.) The fundamental radical and its derivatives will be *neutral* or *alkaline*, whatever be the portion of oxygen, hydrogen, &c., entering into it. But when the oxygen, bromine, &c., enter into combination with this radical they render it acid.

3. *Pyracids.—Theory.* When several of the vegetable acids are distilled, they undergo decomposition, and new acids are generated, which are called by the term *pyracids.* Tartaric acid becomes *pyrotartaric* acid ; gallic, *pyrogallic ;* and so of several others. The difference in composition seems to be that a quantity of water is expelled by the heat.

Section I. *Amylaceous and Saccharine Substances.*

Starch, $C^{12}H^{10}O^{10}$. Starch exists abundantly in the vegetable kingdom. It is a principal constituent of most kinds of grain, potatoes, and other farinaceous substances. It is obtained from potatoes by scraping them and washing in cold water, when the gluten, which is the other principal constituent, remains in the hand, and the starch is mechanically diffused through the water. The water is then allowed to stand, and the starch subsides, while the saccharine and mucilaginous matters remain in solution. When made from the dough of wheat flour, and the water containing the soluble and insoluble parts of the flour is allowed to ferment, acetic acid is formed, which dissolves the gluten and facilitates the separation of the starch. Starch exists in the vegetable organs in small granules, surrounded by sacks, which are

broken by the process of grating or grinding, and the starch is thus separated.

Properties. A white powder, soluble in hot water, forming a semitransparent jelly, but nearly insoluble in cold water. Its uses are well known.

Starch is easily converted into sugar. In the germination of seeds, and in the malting of barley and other grains, this change takes place. If starch is boiled for a considerable time in water which contains one-twelfth of its weight of sulphuric acid, it is converted into a kind of sugar, like that obtained from grapes. *Arrow-root,* prepared from the root of a plant, is a very pure starch. *Sago,* prepared from the pith of an East India palm tree, and *tapioca* and *cassava,* also from the root of a plant, are essentially the same. *Inulin* is a variety of starch found in the roots of the *inula helenium,* dahlia, and in certain lichens. It is a fine white tasteless powder, having the formula $C^{24}H^{21}O^{21}$, (Parnell.) *Lichen starch* exists in several species of lichens. The *cetraria Islandica* (*Iceland moss*) yields a very pure variety of starch, which is used to form *blanc mange.* It forms a white opaque jelly. Starch forms compounds with chlorine, bromine, and iodine.

Gelatinous starch, or *amidin,* is formed by rubbing the grains of starch with sand in a mortar. The coats of the starch granules are broken, and form a grayish white powder. By adding cold water, the mass expands into a transparent jelly. *Mucilaginous starch,* or *dextrine,* is formed by the action of acids, alkalies, diastase, and heat upon gelatinous starch. It is a white glutinous substance, resembling gum.

Diastase is formed by the malting of grain. It is found in grain, the seeds of plants, and in the tubers of potatoes after germination. It is prepared by adding water to freshly malted barley and subjecting it to pressure. A viscid liquid is obtained, which, by heat and the action of alcohol, yields diastase. It is a white substance, remarkable for its property of converting starch into sugar. It is this substance which,

in the fermentation of grain, converts the starch into sugar and then the yeast which is added changes the sugar into alcohol and carbonic acid.

Gluten. Gluten exists with starch in most kinds of grain. It is obtained from wheat flour by washing out the starch and soluble matter, and boiling the remainder in alcohol. On adding water and distilling off the spirit, gluten is deposited.

Properties. Gluten is without taste, very tenacious, elastic, and insoluble in water. It ferments when kept warm and moist. The tenacity of common paste is owing to the gluten which it contains.

The rising of bread is caused by the fermentation of gluten, the tenacity of which retains the bubbles of carbonic acid gas, which are generated in the process. Gluten consists mostly of *vegetable albumen* and *fibrine*, which may be obtained by the action of alcohol on the gluten of wheat and of other grains.

Gum. Under this name are included all those vegetable principles which form, when dissolved in water, an adhesive viscid liquid, called *mucilage*, and which yield an acid, called *mucic acid*, when boiled with 4 times their weight of nitric acid. Gum is insoluble in ether and alcohol, and is precipitated by them from its aqueous solution, as an opaque white substance; but in acids and alkalies, it is more soluble than in pure water.

Gum Arabic is the most common variety of gum. It is obtained from several species of *acacia* or *mimosa*, in Africa and Arabia. It has the composition $C^{12}H^{11}O^{11}$.

Gum Senegal differs in no important respect from gum Arabic. The gum of the peach, plum and cherry-tree, although identical in composition with gum arabic, differs in being insoluble in cold water; after being boiled, however, it assumes the characteristics of that gum.

Gum Tragacanth differs from gum Arabic in containing a large portion of bassoric, starch, and water. It is tougher

than common gum. Gum tragacanth is therefore a very useful ingredient in paste. The jelly of fruits is distinct from gum in some properties, but is nearly allied in others. These substances have the composition $C^{12}H^{11}O^{11}$.

Lignïn. Lignin, or woody fibre, constitutes the fibrous structure of plants, and is the most abundant principle in them. The common kinds of wood contain about 90 per cent. of lignin. Lignin is insoluble in alcohol and water; with caustic alkalies, and acids, it is much changed. With sulphuric acid it is changed into gum, and on boiling, is further changed into a sugar, like sugar of grapes. Straw, bark, and linen, may be converted in the same way into sugar. The lignin of lint, linen cloth, hemp, and straw, has the formula $C^{36}H^{24}O^{20}$ (Payen.) Lignin combines with the sulphate of copper, acetate of iron, chloride of mercury, and is preserved thereby from the *dry rot.* The wood of trees, as soon as they are cut down, will imbibe these salts in solution, become impregnated with them, and rendered almost impenetrable to the ordinary agents of decay.

Xyloidine, Gun-cotton ($C^{12}H^8N^2O^{18}$) is formed by the action of nitric acid on starch or woody fibre. To prepare *gun-cotton,* common cotton is carded to separate the fibres, and then immersed in a mixture of equal quantities of strong nitric and sulphuric acids for about 5 minutes. It is removed from the acid, washed in a large quantity of pure water, and then dried slowly under 212° F. It is then prepared for use.

Properties. This substance, which has of late become so celebrated, does not differ in appearance from cotton, but possesses greater explosive qualities than gunpowder, ignites at a lower temperature, 360°, and is therefore more dangerous to use, especially as it often explodes by sudden compression, as when struck with a hammer. When ignited, it is wholly converted into gases and vapors. The products are water or steam, carbonic acid and carbonic oxide gases.

15*

It has been used with good results in blasting rocks, and for the same purposes as gunpowder. Owing to the comparative harmlessness of the products of its combination, its use in deep mines would be preferable to that of gunpowder.

Action of Oxygen on Woody Fibre, or Lignin. When any organic body is kept from the air, or from moisture, it will rarely decay. If wood is exposed to dry oxygen alone, it is acted upon but slightly, if at all, but when exposed to air and moisture, it suffers successive changes, which have been called by Liebig *eremacausis*, or *decay.* The oxygen of the air combines with the carbon of the wood to form carbonic acid, while the oxygen and hydrogen of the woody fibre unite and form water ; but as two equivalents of water are formed for one of carbonic acid, the residue, after each change, contains a greater quantity of carbon than the wood itself, while its hydrogen and oxygen remain in the same relative proportions. The process is a slow combustion. The final result, however, is not carbon, but a pulverulent brown substance, described as *humus, humic acid, geine, ulmine, ulmic acid.* But when vegetable matter is suffered to decay under water, or away from the oxygen of the air, the products are carbonic acid, from the elements of the wood, carburet of hydrogen, tar and other matters rich in hydrogen. The final result in this instance is peat, lignite, and coal ; and it is in this way that we may account for the formation of the vast beds of coal which are laid up in the rocky strata of the earth. This process is sometimes called *putrefactive fermentation.* When wood is subjected to destructive distillation, a variety of compounds are formed, the more important of which are described in other parts of the work.

Sugar. $C^{12}H^{11}O^{11}$. Sugar is found in most ripe fruits, but more abundantly in the sap of the maple-tree, in the sugar-beet, and in the sugar-cane ; from the latter it is obtained by evaporating the juice at a moderate ebullition, until the syrup is sufficiently thick for the sugar to crystallize on cooling.

During this operation, lime-water is added to neutralize the acid present, and to remove impurities which rise with the lime in a scum to the surface ; it is next drawn off into shallow coolers, in which it becomes a soft solid. Lastly, it is put into barrels with holes in the bottom, through which the *molasses* gradually runs out, leaving raw or brown sugar. Raw sugar is purified by boiling it with the white of eggs or bullock's blood and lime-water ; it is then received into conical vessels, and in cooling assumes the form of *loaf sugar*.

When two pieces of loaf sugar are rubbed together in the dark, phosphorescence is observed ; it is obtained in large crystals by fixing threads in a sirup, which evaporates gradually in a warm room : in this state it is called *rock-candy*. Sugar does not deliquesce when exposed to the air, except when impure, as raw sugar. It is soluble in an equal weight of cold water, and is much more soluble in warm water ; it is soluble in four times its weight of boiling alcohol, from which solution fine crystals are obtained. The vegetable acids diminish the tendency of sugar to crystallize, as in molasses.

By the action of sulphuric acid, starch and common wood may be converted into sugar. By the action of heat on cane-sugar, a brown substance is produced called *caramel*, $C^{12}H^9 O^9$; it is used for coloring spirits. Sugar combines with baryta, lime, oxide of lead, &c., forming unimportant compounds.

Grape Sugar ($C^{12}H^{14}O^{14}$) exists in the juice of fruits, in honey, and in *diabetic urine*. It may be obtained from the juice of the sweet grape by adding chalk, clarifying with the white of an egg, evaporating, and setting aside to crystallize. But the process by which it is manufactured as an article of commerce, is to boil starch with from $\frac{1}{10}$ to $\frac{1}{25}$ of its weight of sulphuric acid, diluted with 4 parts of water, for 36 hours, adding chalk to separate the acid, and crystallizing.

Properties. Grape sugar, as thus obtained, is white and

granular, rather less sweet than cane sugar, and less soluble in cold water, but more soluble in alcohol, from which it may be obtained in transparent cubic crystals.

By the action of acids upon grape sugar, as the sulphuric, a new compound is formed, the *sulpho-saccharic acid*. The same acid decomposes cane sugar. But alkalies, such as lime and baryta, scarcely affect cane sugar, while they decompose grape sugar into *formic, glucic,* and *melassic acids*.

Saccharic Acid ($C^{12}H^{10}O^{16}$) is formed by the action of dilute nitric acid on cane or grape sugar. It is soluble and sharply acid. It is remarkable for the variety of its compounds, as the saccharate of potassa, ammonia, lead, zinc, and silver. The latter salt, when gently heated under water, is decomposed, and a metallic coat of silver is formed upon the sides of the vessel, resembling a mirror.

Sugar of Milk, Lactine ($C^{24}H^{24}O^{24}$, or $C^{24}H^{19}O^{19}+5HO$) exists only in the whey of milk, from which it may be obtained by evaporation, purifying the product with animal charcoal, and recrystallizing. It appears in the form of semi-transparent quadrangular prisms, soluble in 6 parts of cold, and in $2\frac{1}{2}$ parts of hot water. This solution has a much sweeter taste than the crystals themselves. It is insoluble in alcohol and ether. By the action of mineral acids it is converted into grape sugar. With the oxide of lead it forms two compounds, $C^{24}H^{19}O^{19}+5PbO$, and $C^{24}H^{19}O^{19}+10PbO$.

Mucic Acid ($C^{12}H^{8}O^{14}$. 2HO) is formed by the action of 4 parts strong nitric acid, 1 of water heated with 1 part of sugar of milk. A part of the lactine is converted into oxalic acid, and the mucic acid is deposited, on cooling, as a white crystalline powder. Taste feebly acid, soluble in 6 parts of boiling water, and insoluble in alcohol. It is bibasic, combining with alkalies and metallic oxides, and forming two classes of salts. By the dry distillation of this acid, *pyromucic acid* is formed, $C^{10}H^{3}O^{5}HO$, 6 equiv. of water and 2 equiv. of carbonic acid

being separated, *mucic ether* $(2C^4H^5O+C^{12}H^8O)$ crystallizes in quadrangular colorless prisms.

Honey consists of two kinds of sugar, one of which, when separated, crystallizes, and the other is uncrystallizable. Besides sugar, it contains gum, and probably an acid; when diluted with water, honey undergoes the vinous fermentation. Common sugar requires the addition of yeast for this change.

Manna is the concrete juice of several species of ash, and owes its sweetness, not to sugar, but to a distinct principle called *mannite*, having the formula $C^6H^7O^6$.

Liquorice owes its sweetness to a saccharine principle which is quite distinct from sugar.

Fermentation of Sugar, Starch, &c.

Many vegetable substances, when exposed to warmth and moisture, undergo spontaneous changes, and the process is called *fermentation*. It is most commonly observed in substances containing gluten, starch, gum, or sugar. In different stages of the process, sugar, alcohol, and acetic acid are formed, and finally, there is a total dissolution of the substance. These stages of the process are called the *saccharine, vinous, acetous, and viscous* fermentations.

Saccharine Fermentation. Starch only is subject to this kind of fermentation. The quantity of sugar produced equals in weight half of the starch employed. The ripening of fruits has been regarded as a kind of saccharine fermentation, in which the acid of the green fruit is converted into sugar; this change is caused by heat, not by the vitality of the plant.

Vinous Fermentation. When sugar with water, and yeast or some other ferment, is exposed to a warm temperature, the sugar is converted into carbonic acid gas and alcohol, in nearly equal weights of each. As starch is convertible into sugar by fermentation, if the process be continued under the above conditions, it will be converted into alcohol and car-

bonic acid. All vegetable bodies contain some substances which act as a ferment, and therefore, by the addition of moisture and regulation of the temperature, various kinds of grain containing starch, and of ripe fruits containing sugar, will undergo the vinous fermentation. Thus cider is formed from apples, and beer from grain. To obtain ardent spirits, the fermented liquor is heated, and the alcohol passes over by distillation.

In the fermentation of bread, the saccharine matter of the flour is resolved into alcohol and carbonic acid gas. The latter causes the dough to rise, and the former is entirely expelled by the heat of baking. A company in London was formed for collecting the spirit emitted by the baking of bread. If the fermentation of dough be continued, it undergoes the change next described, and becomes sour.

Acetous Fermentation. Any liquid which has undergone the vinous fermentation, or pure alcohol with water and yeast, exposed to the air in a warm place, undergoes a change, in which oxygen is taken from the air, and carbonic acid thrown off. In place of alcohol, acetic acid is found in the liquor. Thus cider becomes sour by age, if exposed to the air, and at length is converted into vinegar. In France, wine is converted into vinegar, and in England, an infusion of malt.

Acetic acid is often formed in the spontaneous decomposition of vegetable substances without sugar. In these cases, the process is quite different from the acetous fermentation, properly so called.

Viscous Fermentation. This kind of transformation takes place in several bodies containing azotized albuminous substances at certain stages of decomposition. Milk or cheese curd mixed with sugar, when the temperature is raised from 95° to 114°, undergo a change which renders the liquid viscid with the formation of *mannite* and *lactic acid.* A similar change takes place when the juices of beets and carrots are

subjected to a high temperature and allowed to ferment; also many animal substances, in the early stages of decay, give rise to similar products.

Theory of Fermentation. The changes above described are explained by the fact, that when any body is in a state of decomposition, it has a tendency to induce changes in bodies with which it is in contact by the force of catalysis, see p. 300. This principle is extended by Liebig to matters of contagion, miasm, &c. Thus when any body in the atmosphere, or in contact with the living system, is in a state of decomposition, it induces a morbid action in the parts exposed, which, unless resisted by counteracting forces, extends its influence throughout the body; hence the danger of dissection in anatomical rooms; a slight cut upon the hand with a knife used upon a subject which has passed to a certain state of putrefactive change, will often excite a morbid action through the whole body, and death is not unfrequently the result.

SECTION II. *Compound Radicals, or substances supposed to contain Compound Radicals.*

I. *Alcohol*, $C^4H^5O.HO$. Alcohol is always the product of fermentation. It does not exist readily formed in any living vegetable. It was discovered in the thirteenth century by the Arabians.

Process. It is obtained from the fermentation of various grains and acidulous fruits by the process of distillation. As thus obtained, it is about one-half water, constituting various kinds of ardent spirits, from which pure alcohol is obtained by a second distillation, and the addition of dry carbonate of potassa to remove any remaining water. (See page 59.)

Properties. Pure alcohol has a sp. gr. of .79, boils at 173° F., is highly combustible, burning with a pale blue but hot flame. No smoke is produced in its combustion, and hence it is of great utility in the laboratory, using it instead of oil to heat various kinds of apparatus. Although exposed to a temperature of —176°, pure alcohol has not been frozen.

Alcohol combines with water in every proportion. With an equal quantity of water, it constitutes spirit of the *first proof*, sp. gr. about .92. The density will vary with the quantity of water. Its solvent properties are nearly equal to those of water, for which it has a strong affinity.

Uses. As a solvent, alcohol is highly useful. Many vegetable principles not soluble in water are freely so in alcohol, as camphor, and many of the resins. Both mineral and vegetable alkalies are soluble, but the other metallic oxides are insoluble. Proof spirit is also useful in cabinets of natural history, for the preservation of specimens of fishes, reptiles, or any other animals. Its uses in the arts are numerous and well known.

Relation to Animals. Alcohol acts upon the animal system as a poison. When taken into the stomach, it has the property of passing into the circulation undigested. It irritates all the organs with which it comes in contact, and produces the most serious effects both upon the body and the mind. The stronger wines contain from 18 to 25 per cent., and the weaker from 12 to 17 per cent. of alcohol. Beers, and all fermented liquors, contain more or less of alcohol. The intoxicating effect of wines is not so great as that of ardent spirits, which may be due to the chemical combination of alcohol in them with mucilaginous and saccharine matters. And yet most wines are more injurious to the system than ardent spirits, because of the acetate of lead and other poisonous matters which are often added in their preparation.

Alcohol is supposed to contain a radical called *ethyle*, having the formula C^4H^5, and symbol E. On this theory it is called *hydrated oxide of ethyle*, $EO + HO$. The several compounds in which this radical is supposed to exist are called the *ethyle series of compounds.*

Ether, Sulphuric Ether, Oxide of Ethyle, C^4H^5O.

Process. Ether may be formed from alcohol by several processes. The easiest process, and the one always em-

ployed in the manufacture of this substance, is to boil in a glass flask about 5 parts of alcohol to 8 of sulphuric acid, alcohol being gradually added, so as to preserve the liquid at the same level. The alcohol is decomposed into ether and water, which distil over through a tube, and are condensed in a receiver surrounded by ice-cold water. The ether floats on the top of the water, and is purified by a second distillation.

Properties. Ether is a volatile transparent liquid sp. gr. .725, as commonly sold, .74, boils at 96°, at the common pressure; *in vacuo* at —40° F., and evaporates rapidly at the ordinary temperature, producing a very intense cold. Its vapor is highly inflammable, and explosive when mixed with oxygen gas. When the vapor of ether is inhaled for a little time, it produces exhilarating effects, similar to the exhilarating gas. It possesses the property of rendering the system insensible to pain, hence it has been used much of late when surgical or dental operations are to be performed.

Uses. Ether is sparingly soluble in water. It is used in medicine as a stimulant, and also applied externally to reduce the temperature in cases of inflammation. Ether combines with several acids, forming a series of salts.

Hydrochloric Ether. *Chloride of Ethyle* (C^4H^5Cl) is formed by the action of hydrochloric acid on alcohol. It is a colorless, highly volatile liquid, sp. gr. .874, boils at 52° F., neutral to test paper, and soluble in 24 parts of water.

Hydrobromic Ether. *Bromide of Ethyle* (C^4H^5Br) is formed by mixing one part of bromine, four of alcohol, and one-eighth part of phosphorus, and distilling. A volatile transparent liquid comes over, rather denser than water.

Hydriodic Ether. *Iodide of Ethyle* (C^4H^5I) is obtained by distilling alcohol with hydriodic acid. It is a colorless liquid.

Sulphuret of Ethyle (C^4H^5S) is formed by passing the vapor of hydrochloric ether through the proto-sulphuret of potassium. It is a colorless liquid, disagreeable odor, boiling at 163°.4 F.

There is also a *bisulphuret* ($C^4H^5S^2$.)

Theory. It will be perceived that all these compounds are formed by substituting an equiv. of Cl.Br. &c. for O.HO in the alcohol, although there may be more complex changes in some of these processes than the simple substitution of one substance for the other.

Mercaptan (C^4H^5S+HS) was discovered by Zeise, and may be formed by passing the vapor of hydrochloric ether through a strong solution of potassa saturated with sulphuret of hydrogen, and condensing the product in a cool receiver.

Properties. It is a colorless liquid, with a penetrating garlic odor, boils at 100°.

This substance acts with great power on several of the metallic oxides, and forms a singular class of compounds— the *mercaptides.*

Nitric Ether. Nitrate of Oxide of Ethyle, $C^4H^5O.NO^5$. By the action of nitric acid on alcohol, nitrous acid and some other bodies are formed ; but if a small quantity of the nitrate of urea is added, the nitric acid takes the place of the elements of one equiv. of water in the alcohol, and forms nitric ether, which distils over as a highly inflammable vapor, and condenses into a colorless liquid. Taste sweetish and agreeable, sp. gr. 1.112, boils at 185° F.

Hyponitrous Ether. Hyponitrite of Oxide of Ethyle ($C^4H^5O.NO^3$) is formed by the action of nitric acid on alcohol, but nitrous acid is also formed, which decomposes the ether. By pouring nitric acid on starch, hyponitrous acid is formed. If this acid is then passed through dilute alcohol, the acid takes the place of one equiv. of water, and hyponitrous ether distils over, and is condensed as a pale yellow liquid, having the fragrant odor of apples, sp. gr. .95, boils at 62° F.

The sweet spirits of nitre used in medicine is prepared by distilling alcohol and nitric acid, and passing the vapor of the product through alcohol to absorb it.

Carbonic Ether. Carbonate of the Oxide of Ethyle ($C^4H^5O.CO^2$) is prepared by dropping pieces of potassium into oxalic ether, until the evolution of gas ceases, and distilling a mixture of the brown paste thus formed with water, car

bonic ether distils over with the water, and is found floating on its surface in the receiver, as a colorless liquid ; odor aromatic, taste burning, boils at 259° F.

Boracic Ether ($C^4H^5O.BO^3$) is obtained by the action of chloride of boron on alcohol, as a limpid liquid. Taste burning, boils at 246°. sp. gr. .885. By the same process, a vitrious solid compound is formed, having the formula C^4H^5. $2BO^3$.

Silicic Ethers. Silicate of the Oxide of Ethyle. Two ethers are formed by the action of the chloride of silicon upon alcohol, similar in constitution to the preceding compounds. Both are volatile liquids, odorous, with a hot burning taste.

Oxalic Ether. Oxalate of the Oxide of Ethyle ($C^4H^5O.C^2$ O^3) may be obtained by distilling a mixture of 4 parts of binoxalate of potassa, 5 parts of sulphuric acid, and 4 parts of strong alcohol, nearly to dryness, and collecting the products in a receiver, kept warm to dissipate any common ether formed in the process. The impure ether is separated by water and re-distilled. It is an oily liquid, colorless, having a very pleasant aromatic odor, sp. gr. 1.09, boils at 363° F. Decomposed by caustic, alkalies, and converted, by a solution of ammonia, into *oxamide* and alcohol.

Acetic Ether ($C^4H^5O.C^4H^3O^3$) is prepared by heating a mixture of 3 parts of acetate of potassa, 3 of alcohol, and 2 of sulphuric acid. The distilled product is purified by a little chalk, then with fused chloride of calcium, water being added to separate the alcohol. It is a liquid, limpid, and of a very fragrant odor, sp. gr. .89, boils at 165° F. It is decomposed by alkalies.

Formic Ether ($C^4H^5O.C^2HO^3$) is formed by distilling 7 parts of dry formate of soda, 10 of sulphuric acid, and 6 of alcohol. The ether is separated from the products by magnesia and chloride of calcium. It requires several days to complete the process. It is a colorless liquid, with an aromatic odor, sp. gr. .915, boils at 133°.

Œnanthic Ether ($C^4H^5O.C^{14}H^{13}O^2$) is obtained in the process of distilling certain wines, as an oily thin liquid of a peculiarly powerful odor of wine. It appears to be formed by the action of an acid called *œnanthic*, which is generated in the process of fermentation. It is this ether which gives the peculiar aroma to wines.

Benzoic Ether ($C^4H^5O+C^{14}H^5O^3$) is an oily liquid, obtained by the distillation of a mixture of 4 parts of alcohol, 2 of benzoic, and 1 of hydrochloric acids.

Theory. In the above compounds one equivalent of the acid is substituted for the elements of an equivalent of water (HO) in the alcohol.

Sulphovinic Acid ($C^4H^5O. 2SO^3+HO$) is prepared by mixing equal weights of sulphuric acid and alcohol, heating the mixture to the boiling point, and after being allowed to cool, adding a quantity of water, and sufficient chalk to render it neutral. The whole is then filtered, and the solution evaporated by the heat of a water bath, filtered again, and crystallized. By this process we obtain sulphovinate of lime in colorless transparent crystals. Efflorescent in dry air, and soluble in water. By substituting carb. of baryta for chalk, a similar salt of baryta is formed, and from this sulphovinic acid may be obtained by adding dilute sulphuric acid, to precipitate the baryta, and evaporating *in vacuo*. It is a syrup-like liquid, sour to the taste, and easily decomposed. When the temperature is raised above 320° it yields water and olefient gas.

Phosphovinic Acid ($C^4H^5O. PO^5+2HO$) is obtained in a similar manner with the above, using phosphoric acid instead of sulphuric. It resembles the preceding substance in its properties, uniting with bases, and forming a class of salts.

Heavy Oil of Wine. This substance is obtained as a yellowish oily liquid, when 2½ parts of sulphuric acid and 1 part of alcohol are distilled. After being purified, it is heavier than water, nearly insoluble in that liquid, soluble in alcohol and ether. In contact with boiling water, it is

converted into sulphovinic acid, and an oily liquid,—the *sweet oil of wine.* When this latter substance is left to cool, it deposits white tasteless crystals of a substance called *etherine,* and there remains a yellowish oily liquid, lighter than water, called *etherole.* These substances are isomeric with olefiat gas, C^4H^4.

Theory. The above acid compounds are formed in the usual manner by substitution, but differ from the preceding in possessing acid properties.

II. *Products of the Oxidation of Alcohol and Ether.*

When alcohol and ether are acted upon by nitric acid and other oxidizing agents, a series of compounds are formed, which have been supposed to contain a new radical—*Acetyle,* $C^4H^3 = Ac.$

Aldehyde ($C^4H^3O.HO$) is prepared by several processes, by passing the vapor of ether, or of alcohol, through a red hot tube, and by distilling sulphuric acid 6 parts, 4 of alcohol, 4 of water, and 6 of oxide of manganese.

Properties. It is a colorless liquid, with a suffocating ethereal odor, sp. gr. .79, boils at 7 2°F., soluble and neutral, but becomes acid on exposure to the air, and unites with bases to form salts. When kept for a long time, two new isomeric bodies are formed, *eladehyde* and *metaldehyde.* Aldehyde is similar in constitution to alcohol.

Aldehydic Acid. Acetous Acid ($C^4H^3O^2.HO$) is obtained by passing sulphuret of hydrogen through a solution of aldehydate of silver. It is also formed by the slow combustion of ether.

Exp. Put a few drops of aldehyde into a little water in a test tube, then add nitrate of silver and ammonia to precipitate the oxide of silver. If now the tube be heated by a spirit lamp, the silver will be deposited on the surface, giving it the appearance of a mirror.

Acetic Acid. Vinegar. $C^4H^3O^3.HO$. This acid exists in the sap of many plants, and is generated in large quantities by the acetous fermentation. It is the acid of common vinegar. To obtain acetic acid in a pure state, saturate distilled vinegar with a metallic oxide, as of copper or lead, and distil

the compound. *Distilled vinegar* is mostly acetic acid. It may also be obtained in a concentrated state by distilling dry acetate of soda with sulphuric acid, and subjecting the products to cold, the pure acid crystallizes out in the solid state.

Pyroligneous Acid consists of acetic acid mixed with tar and a volatile oil, and is obtained by the dry distillation of wood. Alcoholic spirits, by the aid of ferment, are converted into acetic acid.

Properties. *Acetic acid* is solid below 60° F., but contains one equiv. of water, which appears to be essential to its constitution. The liquid acid is transparent, has a fragrant and refreshing odor, and sharp acid taste, sp. gr. 1.065, boils at 248°, soluble in water, alcohol and ether, and highly corrosive to the animal organs. It forms a numerous class of salts, all soluble in water.

Uses. The uses of vinegar are well known. The pure acid is much used in analytical processes, and the crude acid for forming several compounds used in the arts, as white lead.

Acetate of Potassa ($C^4H^3O^3.KO$) is formed by decomposing the carbonate of potassa with acetic acid. It is a white deliquescent salt, much used in medicine.

Acetate of Ammonia. *Spirit of Mindereus* is a medical preparation, formed by the direct union of ammonia with the acid when they are brought in contact. It is a very soluble and volatile solid.

Neutral Acetate of Lead—Sugar of Lead. $C^4H^3O^3.3HO$ PbO. This substance, commonly known under the name of *sugar of lead*, may be prepared by dissolving the carbonate of lead, (white lead) or litharge, in distilled vinegar. It is obtained as a white crystalline salt, of a sweetish astringent taste, and is highly poisonous. It is used in medicine, and by dyers and calico printers for the preparation of acetate of alumina and of iron.

Tri-acetate of Lead ($C^4H^3O^3. 3PbO$) is prepared by mixing

7 parts of litharge with a solution of 6 parts of sugar of lead. The salt crystallizes from the solution in long slender needles, very soluble in water, with an alkaline reaction. It is used in medicine under the name of *Goulard's extract of lead.* This salt contains 3 equiv. of the oxide of lead, two of which, on exposing the salt to the air or carbonic acid, combine with 2 equiv. of the acid, and form the well known paint *white lead,* while the other equiv. of oxide remains in combination, forming the neutral acetate.

In the manufacture of white lead, the *tri-acetate* performs an essential part. Plates of lead are exposed to the influence of acetic acid, water, air, and carbonic acid. The oxygen of the air forms a film of oxide on the plates, which combines with the acetic acid, forming the neutral acetate ; this latter substance acts on the oxide of lead, and forms the tri-acetate. This is decomposed by the carbonic acid into *white lead,* and the neutral acetate, which again unites with more oxide, formed by the oxygen of the air, reproducing the tri-acetate, which is again decomposed by the carbonic acid. The process once begun by a small quantity of *acetic* acid, will continue to produce white lead from the pure lead, until the metal is all exhausted.

Acetates of Copper. Of these three or four are known. The neutral acetate ($C^4H^3O^3.CuO+HO$) is formed by dissolving verdigris in hot acetic acid, and crystallizing from the filtered solution. It forms beautiful crystals of a dark green color, soluble in water and alcohol. Verdigris is a variable mixture of the several acetates of copper, and is prepared in France by covering copper plates with the refuse of grapes after the wine has been extracted. A better article is prepared in England by covering copper plates with cloths soaked in pyroligneous acid.

Acetate of Alumina ($3C^4H^3O^3+Al^2O^3$) is much employed by calico printers as a mordant for fixing colors. It is prepared for this purpose by mixing acetate of lead and alum

(sulphate of alumina and potassa) in solution, and filtering. Gum is put into the filtered liquid to thicken it, and then it is applied to the cloth by a stamp. A moderate degree of heat drives off the acetic acid and the alumina unites with the dye. *Acetate of iron* is also used for the same purpose. *Acetate of zinc* is sometimes applied externally as a remedy. Several other acetates are known, most of which are of little importance.

Acetone, Pyracetic Spirit (C^3H^3O) is obtained by decomposing acetic acid, or metallic acetates, by heat. It is a colorless volatile liquid, very inflammable, burning with a bright flame, sp. gr. .792, boils at 132° F. When this substance is distilled with half its volume of Nordhausen sulphuric acid, another inflammable liquid is obtained, (C^3H^2) and by the action of perchloride of phosphorus on acetone, an oily liquid separates, (C^6H^5Cl.)

III. *Kakodyle and its Compounds.*

Kakodyle, $C^4H^6As=Kd$. This substance is considered as one of the compound radicals, one of the few which have been proved to have an existence. It was discovered by M. Bunsen. It is a colorless liquid, crystallizing on exposure to cold, odor offensive, resembling arseniuret of hydrogen, takes fire in the air and in chlorine gas. It is very poisonous. Kakodyle forms a large class of compounds, in which it performs the part of a simple metal.

Protoxide of Kakodyle—Alkarsine, C^4H^6AsO. This substance has been long known as *Cadet's fuming liquid.* Prepared by heating equal weights of dry acetate of potassa and arsenious acid to redness in a glass retort, and condensing the products in a receiver surrounded with ice.

Properties. A colorless ethereal liquid, very offensive odor, sp. gr. 1.462, boils at 300° F.; subjected to cold, 9° F., it crystallizes in silky scales. Takes fire in the air, after emitting a dense white smoke, and explodes in contact with

nitric acid. Its vapor attacks the eyes and mucous surfaces of the nose, even in small quantities. Inhaled, it is *highly poisonous* and destructive of life.

Kakodylic Acid. Alkargene ($C^4H^6AsO^3$, or KdO^3) is formed by slowly oxydizing kakodyle, or its oxide, by means of adding oxide of mercury to kakodyle covered with water. The acid crystallizes from this solution in oblique rhombic prisms, permanent in dry air, deliquescent when exposed to moisture; very soluble in water and alcohol; combines with oxides and forms salts. It is distinguished from the other compounds of kakodyle by *not being poisonous.*

Chloride of Kakodyle ($C^4H^6AsCl = KdCl$) is formed by distilling hydrochloric acid with an alcoholic solution of oxide of kakodyle previously mixed with a dilute solution of corrosive sublimate. It is a colorless liquid of a very offensive odor, and highly poisonous.

Iodide of Kakodyle (KdI) is prepared by distilling hydriodic acid with oxide of kakodyle. It is a yellowish liquid — very offensive odor. Kakodyle also unites with bromine and fluorine, forming similar compounds,

Sulphuret of Kakodyle (KdS) is a thin colorless liquid, fetid odor, and spontaneously combustible in air or oxygen gas. It dissolves sulphur, and produces a persulphuret of kakodyle, (KdS^2) which is one of the sulphur acids capable of uniting with sulphurets of gold, copper, bismuth, lead, and antimony and thus of forming an interesting class of double salts.

Cyanide of Kakodyle ($KdNC^2$) is prepared by distilling the oxide of kakodyle with strong hydrocyanic acid. It is liquid above 91° F., below that point it crystallizes in four-sided prisms of a beautiful diamond lustre. Its vapor is poisonous in the highest degree; a few grains will so affect the atmosphere of the room as to produce numbness in the hands and feet, vertigo, unconsciousness, and even death, if long respired.

IV. *Products of the Dry Distillation of Wood.*

When wood is subjected to destructive distillation, at a red heat, several substances are formed, the most important of which are tar and *pyroxylic*, or *wood spirit*, which is an alcohol of a series of compounds, containing, as it is supposed, a new radical *methyle*, $C^2H^3 = Me$.

Methylic Ether. Oxide of Methyle ($C^2H^3O = MeO$) is prepared by distilling a mixture of 1 part of wood spirit with 4 of sulphuric acid, and transmitting the gas through milk of lime, and then through pure water, which dissolves the ether. From this liquid the gas is obtained by boiling it, and collecting over mercury.

Properties. A colorless gas, of an ethereal odor, combustible, soluble in water and sulphuric acid. It acts as a base, and unites with the strongest acids to form a class of salts.

Pyroxylic Spirit, Wood Spirit, Hydrate of Oxide of Methyle. $C^2H^3O + HO = MeO + HO$.

Process. When the impure acetic acid obtained by the distillation of wood is saturated with quick-lime and distilled, impure wood spirit first comes over, which is purified by repeated distillation with chloride of calcium and water. It exists also in oil of winter-green.

Properties. A volatile colorless liquid, disagreeable odor, pungent taste, burns with a pale blue flame, soluble in water, alcohol, and ether, sp. gr. .798, boils at 151.7° F. It dissolves, by the aid of heat, sulphur and phosphorus in small quantities. Its solvent properties resemble alcohol.

Uses. It is used in the arts to dissolve resins, in the manufacture of *spirit varnishes.* In medicine, it has been used for affections of the lungs, under the name of *wood naptha ;* but its medicinal virtues are not generally acknowledged.

Chloride of Methyle ($C^2H^3Cl = MeCl$) is obtained by the action of 2 parts of common salt, 3 of sulphuric acid, and 1 of wood spirit. The chlorine of the salt displaces the oxygen and water in the wood spirit, and gives rise to a colorless gas of an ethereal odor and sweet taste, sp. gr. 1.731.

Iodide of Methyle ($C^2H^3I = MeI$) has been obtained as a colorless liquid, slightly inflammable, sp. gr. 2.24

Fluoride of Methyle (MeF) is obtained as a colorless gas, and

Cyanide of Methyle (MeCy) as an ethereal liquid.

Sulphuret of Methyle (MeS) is a limpid liquid of very offensive odor.

Theory. It will be seen that the above compounds are formed by displacing O+HO from wood spirit by Cl. I. F.S., &c., or perhaps hydrogen from one of the bodies unites with the oxygen of the oxide of methyle to form water, and these simple bodies unite directly with the methyle, displacing only HO from the wood spirit.

Sulphate of Oxide of Methyle ($C^2H^3O + SO^3 = MeOSO^3$) is easily prepared by distilling 1 part of wood spirit with 8 or 10 of sulphuric acid. A colorless oily liquid distils over into the receiver, which is purified by caustic baryta. It has an alliaceous odor, sp. gr. 1.324, boils at 370° F., insoluble in water, decomposed by boiling water into *sulpho-methylic acid* and wood spirit.

Nitrate of Oxide of Methyle ($MeO. + NO^5$) is formed by pouring 1 part of wood spirit, and 2 of sulphuric acid, on 1 part of nitrate of potash, in a glass retort, and collecting the products in a receiver. This is purified by repeated distillations with water and chloride of calcium. The pure nitrate is an ethereal colorless liquid, sp. gr. 1.182, boils at 150°, and burns with a yellow flame. Its vapor is very dense, and when heated above 300° explodes with great violence; decomposed by caustic potash into nitre and wood spirit.

Oxalate of Oxide of Methyle ($MeO.C^2O^3$) is obtained in the form of a spirituous liquid, by distilling equal weights of oxalic acid, wood spirit, and sulphuric acid, and condensing the products in a receiver. This, when exposed to the air, yields rhombic crystalline plates, colorless, with the odor of oxalic ether; melts at 124°, and boils at 322°, soluble in alcohol and water. The latter substance decomposes it into oxalic acid and wood spirit.

Acetate of Oxide of Methyle (MeO.$C^4H^3O^3$) is prepared by distilling 1 part of acetic acid, 1 of sulphuric acid, and 2 of wood spirit. It resembles acetic ether, and is isomeric with formic ether.

Sulpho-methylic Acid, MeO.$2SO^3$+HO. This acid is obtained by adding sulphuric acid to sulpho-methyliate of baryta. It is a sour sirupy liquid, which may be made to deposit acicular crystals. Soluble in water and alcohol, easily decomposed by heat. It unites with metallic bases to form salts.

Theory. In the preceding compounds, the acids unite with the oxide of methyle, displacing HO from wood spirit.

V. *Formic Acid* (C^2HO^3+HO) is a secretion from the red ant, from which it derives its name. It may be formed by the action of platinum black on wood spirit, and by transmitting dry sulphuret of hydrogen through a solution of formate of lead.

Properties. It is a colorless liquid, powerfully acid, odor exceedingly penetrating, sp. gr. 1.235, boils at 212°, and crystallizes in large brilliant plates when cooled below 32° F. Its vapor burns with a bluish flame. The pure acid blisters the skin. Decomposed by sulphuric acid, with the escape of carbonic oxide, unites with oxides, and forms a class of salts which resemble those of acetic acid, but which are distinguished from *acetates* by precipitating the oxide of silver or mercury from their combinations.

Formic acid is supposed to have a radical (C^2H, symb. Fo.) called *Formyle,* with which O.Cl.Br.I., &c., unite to form a series of compounds. This base is derived from methyle by removing 2 equiv. of hydrogen.

Formates. Formic acid unites with soda, forming *formate of soda,* a crystalline solid, very soluble, and easily decomposed by sulphuric acid, with escape of carbonic acid.

Formate of Potassa is not easily crystallized.

Formate of Ammonia is easily decomposed by heat into hydrocyanic acid and water. There are also formates of *baryta,*

stronta, lime, magnesia, lead, cobalt, and several other metal-lic oxides. *Formate of copper* crystallizes in beautiful, blue, rhombic prisms. *Formates of mercury* and *silver* are easily decomposed by a gentle heat, the metal being precipitated with escape of carbonic acid.

Chloroform Perchloride of Formyle (C^2HCl^3) is best obtained by distilling a mixture of 1 part of alcohol or wood spirit, 3 of chloride of lime, and 24 of water, in a large vessel. A heavy oil collects in the receiver, which, when rectified, is a thin colorless liquid, of an agreeable ethereal odor and sweetish taste, sp. gr. 1.48, boils at 141° F. Dissolved in alcohol, it is used in medicine under the name of *chloric ether.* By the action of chlorine, we obtain C^2Cl^4, or bichloride of carbon. Its vapor when respired renders the system insensible.

Bromoform. Perbromide of Formyle (C^2HBr) is prepared in the same manner with the preceding, using bromine instead of chlorine. It is a heavy volatile liquid.

Iodoform (C^2HI^3) is also formed in the same manner. It is a yellow crystalline solid. Both of these compounds are decomposed by a solution of potash in alcohol.

VI. *Potato Oil — Amylic Alcohol,* $C^{10}H^{11}O.HO$. This substance distils over with the potato brandy in the manufacture of the latter article, as an acrid volatile oil. In its constitution it is similar to alcohol, and has been supposed to be a *hydrated oxide* of a new radical, *amyle,* $C^{10}H^{11}$. symb. Ayl. This hypothetical radical unites with O.Cl.Br, I and S, forming a series of compounds similar to acetyle, &c.

Chloride of Amyle ($C^{10}H^{11}.Cl$) is prepared by distilling equiv. weights of potato oil and perchloride of phosphorus. It is a liquid of an agreeable aromatic odor, insoluble and neutral; burns with a flame tinged with green, boils at 215°. By the action of chlorine exposed to sunshine, another compound is formed, *chloruret of chloride of amyle,* ($C^{10}H^3Cl^9$) the chlorine replacing a portion of the hydrogen.

Bromide of Amyle ($C^{10}H^{11}Br$) and the *Iodide of Amyle* ($C^{10}H^{11}I$) are volatile liquids, somewhat similar in their properties.

Sulphamylic Acid ($C^{10}H^{11}O + SO^3HO$) may be obtained by precipitating it from its combination with oxide of barium, by means of dilute sulphuric acid. It has an acrid bitter taste, and forms salts with metallic oxides.

VII. *Valerianic Acid* ($C^{10}H^9O^3$.HO) exists in the root of the *valeriana officinalis*, from which it may be obtained by distillation. It is also prepared by heating potato oil with quicklime and hydrate of potassa. The valerianate of potassa thus formed is distilled with dilute sulphuric acid.

Properties. A colorless oil, sharp acid taste, odor of valerian root, burns with a bright smoky light, sp. gr. .937, boils at 374°.

Uses. Used in medicine, in the form of valerianate of zinc. The medicinal qualities of the valerian root are due to the presence of this acid.

Valerianic acid is supposed to contain a base radical called *valeryle*, ($C^{10}H^9$, symb. Vl) which forms a series of compounds analogous to the other hypothetical radicals.

VIII. *Oil of Bitter Almonds and its Products.*

This oil is supposed to contain a *compound radical* called *Benzoyle*, $C^{14}H^5O^2Bz$, which unites with O.Cl.Br.I.S, &c., and forms a series of compounds.

Bitter Almond Oil is considered a *Hydruret of Benzoyle*, $C^{14}H^5O^2 + H = BzN$. This compound is obtained by digesting in water, for some hours, crushed bitter almonds, and distilling. An oily liquid passes over, containing the pure oil, mixed with hydrocyanic acid and some other substances. This is purified by adding protochloride of iron, hydrate of lime, and distilling again.

Properties. A colorless liquid, odor very fragrant, taste

pungent, sp. gr. 1.073, boils at 356° F.   The vapor burns with a bright smoky flame.   The crude oil is poisonous, but when perfectly pure it is not injurious.

Uses.   Extensively used by perfumers, for giving an agreeable flavor to puddings, custards, &c.   Exposed to the air, 2 equiv. of oxygen combine with it, and form

Benzoic Acid, $C^{14}H^5O^3.HO$, which also exists in a fragrant resin, obtained from a species of the laurus (*laurus benzoin*) in the balsam of Peru, and in several other vegetable substances.

Properties.   Benzoic acid crystallizes in soft white scales, flexible, transparent, and of a pearly lustre, or in hexagonal needles ; is slightly biting, but of a sweetish taste, producing sensation in the throat.   When warmed, it is slightly fragrant.   Fuses at 248°, and sublimes a little above, and boils at 462° F.

Exp.   Suspend a small branch of a shrub in a tall glass without a bottom ; place a small quantity of the acid upon a plate of metal ; place the jar over the plate, at the same time applying the heat of a lamp to evaporate the acid, and the branch will soon be covered with delicate white crystals.

Benzoic acid combines with metallic bases, and forms a large but unimportant class of compounds, the *Benzoates*— 1 equiv. of acid to 1 of base.

Chloride of Benzoyle ($C^{14}H^5O^2.Cl = BzCl$) is prepared by passing chlorine gas through bitter almond oil, and heating the yellow liquid thus formed to expell excess of chlorine.

Theory.   One equiv. of chlorine takes the place of one equiv. of hydrogen, by simple substitution.

Properties.   A colorless liquid, odor penetrating and disagreeable, sp. gr. 1.106, boils at 383°.   Its vapor burns with a greenish tint.   Slowly decomposed by cold water into benzoic and hydrochloric acids ; by alcohol into HCl and benzoate of ether.   With alkalies it yields a benzoate and a chloride.   By distilling this substance with metallic *bromides, iodides, sulphurets,* &c., compounds are formed similar to the

chlorides. By passing dry ammoniacal gas through chloride of benzoyle, a white solid is formed, called

Benzamide, $C^{13}H^5O^3.NH^2 = BzNH^2$.

Theory. Cl unites with one equiv. of H of the NH^3, leaving NH^2 in combination.

This substance is purified by solution in water, from which pure benzamide crystallizes in right rhomboidal prisms or plates, of a pearly lustre. Fuses at 239°; decomposed by acids and alkalies, if water be present, into ammonia and benzoic acid.

Benzole ($C^{12}H^6$) was discovered by Faraday, and called bicarburet of hydrogen. It may be obtained by heating 1 part of benzoic acid with 3 of slacked lime. It is a limpid liquid, with an agreeable ethereal odor; sp. gr. .85, boils at 187° F. insoluble in water, but soluble in alcohol and ether. When decomposed by acids, it forms several compounds, as *sulphobenzole,* $C^{12}H^5SO^2$, *nitro-benzole,* $C^{12}H^5NO^4$. An equivalent of hydrogen unites with one equiv. of oxygen in the above acids to form water, and SO^2 and NO^4 remain in combination with the benzole. Br. and Cl. and I. and N. unite with benzole, and form unimportant compounds.

Benzoine ($C^{14}H^6O^2$) is obtained by mixing equal quantities of bitter almond oil and an alcoholic solution of potassa. By repeated crystallization, it is obtained in colorless prisms, without odor or taste. It is isomeric with the oil of bitter almonds.

Benzile ($C^{14}H^5O^2$) is obtained by passing chlorine gas through benzoine in a state of fusion. It is a yellowish crystalline solid, inodorous and tasteless. This substance has the composition assigned to the hypothetical radical *benzoyle,* and has been supposed to be an isomeric modification of it. It would seem preferable to make it the radical of the series; but the series of compounds it forms, by the action of other bodies, does not seem to favor such a view. The benzoyle series of compounds are very numerous—only the most

important have been described. The two following substances are also obtained from bitter almonds, and are virtually related to this series.

Amygdaline ($C^{40}NH^{27}O^{22}$) exists also in the seed of the peach and cherry-laurel. It is obtained by the action of boiling alcohol upon the almond cake, or substance which remains when bitter almonds are pressed to obtain the oil. It crystallizes in large transparent prisms, having a silky lustre. By the action of alkalies it yields

Amygdalic Acid, ($C^{40}H^{26}O^{24}$.HO) which has a very agreeable acid taste, capable of forming a class of salts, the *amygdalates,* of which little is known.

Synaptase, or Emulcine, is another singular body, constituting the white portion of both sweet and bitter almonds. It is very soluble in water, of uncertain composition.

Hippuric Acid ($C^{18}NH^{8}O^{5}$.HO) is formed from benzoic acid in a very singular manner. When benzoic acid is taken into the stomach, the *urine* formed will contain hippuric acid in quantities greater than that of the benzoic acid swallowed. It also exists in the urine of the horse and cow. When pure, it is in the form of beautiful white crystals, of a slightly bitter taste. By a high temperature it is converted into benzoic acid and benzoate of ammonia. When the urine of the horse is left to putrefy, its hippuric acid is converted wholly into benzoic acid.

IX. *Salicene* ($C^{42}H^{29}O^{22}$) is a peculiar bitter principle which exists in the leaves and bark of the willow, poplar, and some other trees. It may be prepared by heating the bark with boiling water, and digesting the evaporated liquid with oxide of lead, and then precipitating the lead by sulphuret of hydrogen. On evaporation, salicene crystallizes, and 's purified by animal charcoal.

Properties. Salicene appears in the form of small silky needles, having an intensely bitter taste. On heating, it is

decomposed, and burns with a bright flame.   Soluble in wa-
ter and alcohol.

Uses.   Used extensively in medicine as a tonic.   By dis-
tilling salicene with sulphuric acid and bichromate of potassa,
a yellow sweet-scented oil is produced, which is found to be
identical with the volatile oil from the flowers of the common
meadow-sweet, (*spirea ulmaria*) and is called

Hydrosalicylic Acid, and *Salicid of Hydrogen,* $C^{14}H^5O^4.H$.
This substance is supposed to contain a new compound radi-
cal, *Salicyle,* ($C^{14}H^5O^4 == Sa$) which forms a series of com-
pounds analogous to *benzoyle.*   Hydrosalicylic acid is an oily
liquid, fragrant odor, and burning taste ; sp. gr. **1.173,** boils
at 380°, soluble in water, reddens litimus, and gives a vio-
let color to the pure salts of iron ; soluble in alcohol and
ether.

Salicylic Acid ($C^{14}H^5O^4.O$) is prepared by heating hydru-
ret of salicyle with solid hydrate of potassa in excess, dis-
solving the fused mass in water and adding a little hydrochlo-
ric acid.   The acid crystallizes from the solution in small
white crystals, sparingly soluble in water, and very soluble
in alcohol and ether.   It exists in oil of winter-green, and
may be obtained from it by heating it with a solution of
potassa, and adding hydrochloric acid to separate the potassa.
It somewhat resembles benzoic acid.

Chloride of Salicyle ($C^{44}H^5O^4$) is obtained by action of
chlorine gas on salicylic acid, the Cl taking the place of the
oxygen.   It crystallizes in tabular crystals of a pearly
lustre ; odor disagreeable, taste hot and pungent.   It com-
bines with metallic oxides, such as potassa, baryta, &c.
Bromine and iodine also displace one equiv. of oxygen from
salicylic acid, and form compounds analogous to the corres-
ponding compounds of benzoyle.

Phloridzine ($C^{42}H^{25}O^{18}$. $6HO$) exists in the bark of the root
of the apple, pear, plum, and cherry-tree, and may be ob-
tained from the bark by the action of boiling alcohol.   It re-

sembles salicine. Forms fine silky needle-shaped crystals, having a bitter astringent taste. It is used as a febrifuge.

X. *Oil of Cinnamon* ($C^{18}H^8O^2H$) is obtained from cinnamon bark by soaking it in a saturated solution of salt, and distilling. It is a heavy oily liquid, with the well known cinnamon odor and taste. This oil is supposed to be a hydruret of a new radical called *cinnamyle*, $C^{18}H^8O^2$, symb. Ci.

Cinnaminic Acid ($C^{18}H^8O^3$.HO) is formed by exposing oil of cinnamon to the air or to oxygen gas. It is a white crystalline substance, resembling benzoic acid, and forms a similar class of salts. Heated with sulphuric acid and bichromate of potassa, it is converted into benzoic acid. It exists also in the balsam of Tolu, from which it may be obtained by boiling this substance with an equal weight of hydrate of lime, and a large quantity of water. Oil of cinnamon and chlorine give rise to compounds of little importance. This oil is obtained from China and Ceylon; the former is much the best; both are impure. They may be purified by adding cold strong nitric acid, and decomposing the solid matter thus formed with water.

XI. *Oxide of Carbon*, (*Oxalyle*,) C^2O^2. Oxide of carbon has already been described as *carbonic oxide*, page 172. To make it correspond to the termination which has been given to the *compound radicals*, it has received the name *oxalyle*, derived from oxalic acid.

Oxalic Acid (C^2O^3HO) was discovered by Scheele, in 1776, and is found in several plants, among which is common sorrel, the sour taste of which is caused by the presence of oxalic acid; it is obtained also by the action of nitric acid on sugar. Many other organic substances, as starch, gum, most of the other vegetable acids also, wool, silk, &c., are converted into oxalic acid by the action of nitric acid.

Properties. Oxalic acid is sold in small, slender crystals,

and much resembles *Epsom salts,* for which it is sometimes mistaken with fatal consequences. But, although a powerful poison, it may be tasted without danger, when its strong acidity will easily distinguish it; if taken by accident, powdered chalk in water or magnesia should be administered.

Oxalates of Potassa. There are three of these compounds, one of which, the *binoxalate,* ($HO.C^2O^3$, $KO.C^2O^3+2Aq.$) is often sold under the name of *essential salt of lemons,* for removing the stains of iron-rust from linen; a solution of oxalic acid will answer the same purpose. *Quadroxalate of potassa* is sold for the preceding, and is formed by dissolving the binoxalate in hydrochloric acid, and crystallizing. In this way the salt is manufactured on a large scale.

Oxalate of Lime ($CaO.C^2O^3+3Aq.$) exists in several species of lichen, and, when recently precipitated, is a snow-white flocculent powder. This salt may be distinguished from most other precipitates by its being insoluble in water, ammonia, and acetic acid, but soluble in nitric and hydrochloric acids. On this account, lime may be detected in solutions from which all other metallic oxides have been separated: thus these oxalates are used to separate lime from magnesia. Lime may also be used to detect oxalic acid.

XII. *Cyanogen,* symb. NC^2, or Cy. equiv. 26.39. Cyanogen has already been noticed, (page 196.) It is easily obtained by heating in a glass retort the cyanide of potassium. A black substance remains in the retort, identical in composition with cyanogen, which has been called *Para-cyanogen.*

Properties. Cyanogen is a colorless gas, with a strong pungent odor, and burning with a beautiful purple flame. It is characterized by the property of entering into combination with other bodies, like a simple substance. It is one of the compound radicals. Its compounds, which have been de-

scribed as *cyanurets*, are now generally classed with the *ides*, thus, *cyanide of potassium*, for *cyanuret of potassium*, &c.

Cyanic Acid (CyO, HO=43.39) is formed by dissolving cyanogen gas in a solution of caustic potash. It is a transparent, highly volatile liquid, of a pungent odor, strongly affecting the eyes. It passes, soon after its formation, with the evolution of heat, into a substance called *cyamelide*, (C^2O^2, NH, Liebig.)

Cyanate of Ammonia ($C^2O^2N^2H^4$) is formed by mingling dry ammonia with the vapor of cyanic acid. It is a white crystalline salt, which, when heated, loses a little ammonia, and is converted into

Urea. This substance exists as an animal product in urine, and was the first organic body which was formed artificially. It may be obtained by evaporating fresh urine to a sirup, and acting upon it with strong nitric acid, decomposing the compound thus formed by an alkali, and purifying the urea with alcohol. It has the formula $C^2O^22NH^2=Ur$.

Properties. Urea crystallizes in flattened four-sided prisms. It has a cooling taste like nitre, somewhat acrid and bitter, soluble in its own weight of cold water. It fuses at 248°. Exposed to dry air, it is permanent, but deliquesces in damp air. It is a feeble base, uniting with acids. The *nitrate* of urea and the *oxalate* are the most important. The lactate of urea is the form it assumes in human urine, and the *hippuriate* of urea in the urine of the cow.

Fulminic Acid ($Cy^2O^2,2HO=86.78$) was noticed page 196, as isomeric with cyanic acid. The proportion of its elements are the same; but it possesses quite different properties. It has never been separated from its salts, in consequence of its undergoing decomposition the moment it is liberated.

It forms two classes of salts, one containing 2 equivalents of base as the fulminate of silver, ($Cy^2O^2,2AgO$) and the other containing two bases as the *fulminate of oxide of silver and potassium* $Cy^2O^2AgO.KO$.

All the salts of this acid are characterized by the property of exploding when heated or struck with any solid body.

The fulminate of silver and the fulminate of mercury are used for percussion caps, torpedoes, &c. The former is the most dangerous to experiment with.

It is easily formed by dissolving silver in dilute nitric acid, and adding pure alcohol to check the violence of the action. The process may be conducted in a glass tumbler. The white precipitate which is formed, must be poured on a filter, and allowed slowly to dry. It should then be placed in small paper boxes, and kept undisturbed in a cool place. Mercury may be used instead of the silver, and preserved in the same way.

Exp. Take a small quantity of this salt on the point of a knife, place it in sand or small pebbles, and roll the whole up into paper balls. These, when thrown against the floor, will explode with a sharp report. The explosion is due to the decomposition of the salt; the solid being suddenly resolved into the state of a gas.

Cyanuric Acid ($Cy^3O^3.3HO$) may be formed by several processes, (see p. 196.) One of the best is to dissolve *Melam* in sulphuric acid, add 30 parts of water, and boil the whole, adding water for 4 or 5 days till the liquid does not give a white precipitate with ammonia. The liquid on cooling deposits crystals of cyanuric acid, which may be purified by re-crystallization. This acid is tribasic, forming three classes of salts, which are distinguished by the fact, that one, two, and three equivalents of water are displaced by some other base ; thus, the

Acid has the formula,	$Cy^3O^3,3HO$.
Cyanurate of Potassa,	$Cy^3O^3,KO2HO$.
Cyanurate of Binox, silver,	$Cy^3O^3,2AgO.HO$.
Cyanurate of Terox, silver,	$Cy^3O^3,3AgO$.

This acid differs in other respects, also, from the two preceding, and particularly in a greater permanence of composition. Cyanogen unites with chlorine, iodine, and bromine, forming unimportant compounds. (See page 197.)

Hydrocyanic Acid, Prussic Acid, CyH. This remarkable

substance has been described (page 197) as one of the most virulent of poisons. It is used in medicine for diseases of the chest and lungs. It is easily decomposed by exposure to light, and should be kept in the dark.

As this substance is sometimes used for poisoning, it is desirable to be able to detect it.

The most delicate test is the following—

1. Take the suspected liquid as the contents of the stomach, mix it with one-sixth of its bulk of sulphuric acid, and distil it. Add now to the distilled liquid a few drops of protosulphate of iron, and a slight excess of caustic potash to precipitate the oxide of iron.

2. Take the alkaline liquid, and after exposing it to the air, to allow the peroxide of iron to form, add sufficient hydrochloric acid, to render it acid, when there will be formed the well known substance, *prussian blue*—a sure test of the presence of hydrocyanic acid.

Cyanogen unites with sulphur, forming several compounds.

The compound described as bisulphuret of cyanogen, (page 208,) is supposed to be a substance composed of a hypothetical radical *sulphocyanogen* with sulphocyanic acid and water. The radical has the formula, Cy2S, or Symbol, Csy.

Hydrosulphocyanic Acid, (S^{2}CyH,) is described, p. 208.

Sulphocyanide of Potassium, (CyS^{2}K,) is formed by fusing 17 parts of dry carb. of potash, 32 of sulphur, and 46 of dry ferrocyanide of potassium in an iron retort. The mixture is stirred gently until bubbles of gas cease to escape, and the vessel has attained a dull red heat. By washing in water, the salt is dissolved, and by evaporation, crystallizes in long colorless prisms, having a sharp saline taste.

Cyanide of Potassium (CyK) is described page 233.

Cyanogen also unites with zinc, cobalt, iron, mercury, palladium, silver, and gold, forming cyanides of these metals, some of which have already received attention, in other parts of

the work.   With iron, cyanogen forms one of the hypotheti
cal radicals called

Ferrocyanogen, (Cfy,) which is supposed to unite with hy-
drogen to form

Hydro-Ferrocyanic Acid. $Cy^3Fe.H^2$. This acid is formed
by the action of 1 part of hydrochloric acid on 4 parts of a
saturated solution of ferrocyanide of potassium, and then di-
gesting the mixture with $2\frac{1}{2}$ parts, dry measure, of pure ether,
a white crystalline body rises to the surface with the ether,
which, when purified with ether, and dried, is pure ferrocy-
anic acid.

Properties. This acid in solution has a powerfully acid
taste, and decomposes readily alkaline carbonates.   It unites
with bases forming *ferrocyanides.*

Ferrocyanide of Potassium ($C^6N^3Fe.KO.3HO$) is manufac-
tured on a large scale under the name of *yellow prussiate of
potash.*

Process.   Impure carbonate of potash, iron filings, and dry
refuse animal matter, are put into a large iron vessel, excluded
from the air, and fused at a red heat.   By this process, cya-
nide of potassium is generated, and is dissolved out with hot
water; the cyanide is thus converted by the oxide or the
sulphuret of iron into the ferrocyanide of potassium.   When
this filtered solution is evaporated, crystals are formed, which,
by resolution and evaporation, yield large yellow crystals, sol-
uble in 4 parts of cold and in 2 of boiling water.   It has a
mild saline taste, and may be taken with impunity.

Ferrocyanide of potassium is a valuable chemical reagent.
When mixed with slightly acid or neutral salts of the metals,
as of copper, lead, and iron, the potassium of the base is dis-
placed by these metals, and forms compounds of characteristic
colors.   With any salt of the peroxide of iron, it forms *ordi-
nary Prussian blue,* or

Ferrocyanide of Iron. Cy^9Fe^7. This salt is well known
as a beautiful blue pigment; dissolved in oxalic acid, it con-
stitutes *blue ink.*

By passing chlorine gas through a solution of ferrocyanide

of potassium, a persalt of iron is precipitated, and the solu
tion, by evaporation, yields beautiful dark red prismatic crys-
tals of *ferridcyanide of potassium*, which is supposed to con-
tain a radical called *ferridcyanogen.* Cy^6Fe^2 or Cfdy,

Cyanogen unites with cobalt and platinum, forming a se-
ries of salts, having each a hypothetical radical, *Cobaltocy-
anogen*, $(Cy^6Co^2=Chy)$ and platinocyanogen $(Cy^2Pt.=Cpy.)$

XIII. *Mellone.* $C^6N^4=Ml.$

When chlorine acts on sulphocyanide of potassium in so-
ution, a yellow substance is precipitated, which has been
called *Metasulphocyanogen* $C^{12}N^6S^{12}H^2O$ (Parnell.)

By heating this substance, several substances are driven
off, such as sulphuret of carbon, sulphur and water, and
there remains a yellow powder, which has the composition
C^6N^4, and has received the name of *mellon* or *mellone*.

It is insoluble, and is decomposed by a bright red heat
into 3 vols. of cyanogen and one of nitrogen. It is one of
the *salt radicals* combining with hydrogen, potassium, &c.

Hydromellonic Acid (C^6N^4H or MlH) is formed by the ac-
tion of hydrochloric acid on a hot solution of mellonide of
potassium. On cooling, a white powder subsides, having
strongly marked acid properties.

Mellonide of Potassium (C^6N^4K or MlK) is formed by de-
composing acetate of potash with hydromellonic acid, and
washing the crystals thus formed with alcohol. The sulpho-
cyanide is dissolved, and the mellonide of potassium remains,
forming with water small needle-shaped crystals of a bitter
taste.

Melam ($C^{12}N^{11}H^2$) is formed by decomposing sulphocya-
nide of ammonia by heat. It is a grayish-white powder.

Melamine ($C^6N^6H^6$) is formed by boiling melam in a so-
lution of 1 part of hydrate of potash and 20 of water, until
the turbid liquor becomes perfectly clear. On cooling, mel-
amine is deposited in transparent colorless or slightly yellow

crystals of the form of rhomboidal octohedrons. It forms salts with dilute acids.

Ammeline ($C^6N^5H^5O^2$) remains in the solution when melamine crystallizes, combined with potash, and is obtained by the action of acetic acid, and then by dilute nitric acid, forming nitrate of ammeline; the ammeline is then precipitated by carbonate of ammonia. It forms very brilliant silky needles, and unites with the more powerful acids to form salts.

Ammelide ($C^{12}N^9H^9O^5$) is produced where melam, melamine, or ammeline, are decomposed by concentrated acids. It is a white powder, insoluble excepting in strong alkalies or acids.

XIV. *Uric Acid* (*Lithic Acid*) $C^{10}N^4H^4O^6$ exists in the urine of all carniferous animals. *Guano*, which exists in such abundance on many small islands, near the coast of Peru and Chili, and which is so extensively used as manure, is mostly *urate of ammonia*. It results from the decomposition of the excrements of aquatic birds. Urinary calculi are often composed of it. Uric acid may be prepared from the excrements of serpents, as that of the *boa constrictor*, by dissolving them in caustic potash, and decomposing the urate of potassa thus formed with hydrochloric acid. It crystallizes in thin silky scales of brilliant whiteness, inodorous and nearly insoluble in cold water. It unites with the alkalies and alkaline earths, forming sparingly soluble salts. Uric acid is supposed to be composed of a salt radical called Urile $=^{Tr}$, which radical contains the elements of cyanogen and oxide of carbon ($2Cy.4CO$ or $C^8N^2O^4$) by adding 1 eq. of urea ($C^2O^2N^2H^5$) to this, it will give the formula of uric acid ($C^{10}N^4O^6H^4$.) By the action of oxidizing substances upon uric acid, a very brilliant class of compounds are formed. By boiling this acid with peroxide of lead, a new compound is form ᶠl, called

Allᴀ oin. $C^4N^2H^3O^3$. This substance is found in the

allontoic fluid of the cow, and may be obtained in brilliant colorless prisms, by evaporating this fluid to one quarter of its bulk. (See Graham's Chemistry.) By adding uric acid gradually to nitric acid, sp. gr. 1.35, another compound,

Alloxan ($C^8N^2O^{16}H^4$) is formed. This substance crystallizes in large octohedrons with a rhombic base, very soluble in water, reddens vegetable blues and gives a purple stain to the skin. By the action of alkalies it forms *alloxanic acid* ($C^4N^2HO^4$.)

Alloxantin ($C^8N^2H^5O^{10}$) is still another product of the decomposition of uric acid by nitric acid. It is also formed by the action of sulphuret of hydrogen on *alloxan*. It crystallizes in obtuse four-sided prisms, which become red in ammoniacal air, and acquire a green metallic lustre. Alloxantin is decomposed into several compounds by the action of sulphuret of hydrogen.

Murexide ($C^2N^5H^6O^8$) is formed by "evaporating a solution of uric acid in dilute nitric acid, until the solution acquires a flesh-red color." After cooling to 110°, ammonia is added, the whole diluted with half its bulk of water and cooled.

Properties. Murexide forms crystals which are of a garnet-red color, by transmitted light. By heating this substance in caustic potash till the blue color disappears, and adding an excess of dilute sulphuric acid,

Murexan ($C^6N^2H^4O^5$) is formed, called also *purpuric acid.* It crystallizes in plates which have a very brilliant silky lustre. Murexan resembles uramile, and possibly may be identical with it.

We have given the most important of the cyanogen series of compounds. For more extended details, the student is referred to Graham's Chemistry.

Section III. *Organic Acids.*

Organic Acids are, for the most part, less liable to spontaneous decomposition than other organic substances, although none of them can exist at the temperature of a red heat; they all contain carbon and oxygen, most of them hydrogen; generally they have more oxygen than would be sufficient to form water by combination of their hydrogen, but a few have these elements in the same ratio as in water.

Malic Acid. $C^8H^4O^8,2HO$. This acid is contained in grapes, currants, gooseberries, oranges, apples, and in most of the acidulous fruits. It is also obtained by the action of nitric acid on $\frac{1}{5}$ of its weight of sugar; it forms salts with metallic oxides, called *malates*.

Citric Acid. $C^{12}H^5O^{11},3HO$. This acid is also found in many acidulous fruits, especially in limes and lemons, from which it is usually obtained. It has an agreeable flavor, and is an excellent substitute for lemons; it is used in the preparation of lemon syrup, in which, however, tartaric acid is largely employed, being much less expensive, but of very inferior flavor.

Aconitic Acid, $(C^4H^2O^3,HO,)$ is formed by heating citric acid to a temperature of about 300°. It is also obtained from *Aconitum napellus* and *Equisetum fluviatale*. It forms small confined crystals, soluble in alcohol, and by the action of dry hydrochloric acid upon its alcoholic solution, forms *Aconitic Ether*. When rapidly distilled it forms two isomeric bodies, *itaconic* and *citraconic acids.*

Tartaric Acid. $C^8H^4O^{10},2HO$. This acid also exists in acidulous fruits, usually in combination with lime or potassa. Tartaric acid is used with the bicarbonate of soda for an effervescing drink; it forms numerous salts, many of which are double.

Bitartrate of Potassa. In an impure form, this is known by the name of *crude tartar,* and is found incrusted on the

sides of wine casks, colored by the wine; when purified it is white, and is known by the name of *cream of tartar.* It is used for the preparation of tartaric acid, and as a medicine.

Tartrate of Antimony and Potassa. This compound is sold under the name of *tartar emetic,* and is prepared by boiling sesquioxide of antimony with cream of tartar. It is neutralized by vegetable astringents, as tea or Peruvian bark, which may therefore be used as an antidote, in case of taking a too powerful dose. It is a white solid, slightly efflorescent, and is composed, according to Philips, of 1 atom of bitartrate of potassa, 3 sesquioxide of antimony, and 3 of water.

Tartrate of Potassa and Soda is prepared by saturating an excess of acid in tartar, with carbonate of soda. It has long been used in pharmacy under the name of *Rochelle Salt* and *Sel de Seignette.* It consists of 1 atom of tartrate of potassa, 1 atom of tartrate of soda, and 10 atoms of water. By the action of heat, tartaric acid loses successive portions of water, and two new acids are formed, the

Tartrelic and *Tartralic Acids,* and when subjected to destructive distillation, it yields two other acids, the

Liquid Pyrotartaric. $C^6H^3O^5,HO.$ And

Solid Pyrotartaric. $C^5H^3O^3HO.$

Paratartaric or *Racemic Acid,* ($C^4H^2O^5HO,$) exists in certain wines, or in the cream of tartar which is found in them. It is a more powerful acid than tartaric, and forms a class of salts, similar in composition to the salts of tartaric acid. Its decomposition by heat, produces also several new acids.

Tannic Acid, or *Tannin.* $C^{18}H^8O^{12}.$ This substance exists in gall-nuts, (the excrescences of several species of the oak,) in the bark of most trees, in tea, and in most vegetable astringents, and is the cause of their astringency. With gelatin or glue, it forms an insoluble compound, which is the basis of leather. Hence leather is prepared by soaking

skins in water, which contains ground bark, the tannic acid of which is taken in solution by the water.

Exp. To a strong solution of gelatin (common glue answers well enough) add a strong infusion of gall-nuts; a white precipitate will be formed, and may be collected upon a glass rod and pressed together, forming a strong extensible mass, resembling new leather. When exposed to the oxygen of the air, it is gradually converted into gallic acid.

Gallic Acid. $C^7H^3O^5$. This acid also exists in gall-nuts and in the bark of trees, but is more abundantly obtained by the oxidation of the tannic acid of gall-nuts. Common *ink* owes its color to the compounds of tannic and gallic acids with the sesquioxide of iron, and may be extemporaneously prepared by adding to an infusion of gall-nuts a solution of copperas, which has been exposed to the air.[*]

Some of the most important of the remaining organic acids are the following :—

Mellitic Acid, (C^4O^3.HO,) is contained in the rare substance called, *honey-stone.* It exists as a white, slightly crystalline powder, soluble in alcohol; and, by boiling the solution, there seems to be formed an acid—*mellitate of ether.* It forms salts called *mellitates.*

Croconic Acid (C^5O^4) is a yellow, easily crystallized solid, soluble in water and in alcohol. All its salts are yellow.

Lactic Acid, ($C^6H^5O^5$,) so called from being first noticed in sour milk, was discovered by Scheele, in 1780. It has since been found in several vegetable bodies when left to spontaneous fermentation. It is colorless, without smell, but excessively sour. Its salts are termed *lactates.*

Kinic Acid ($C^{14}H^{11}O^{11}$.HO) exists in cinchona bark, in combination with lime, quinia, and cinchonia.

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[*] A very good ink may be formed thus: Take 8 oz. of bruised galls 4 oz. sulphate of iron, 3 oz. gum arabic, and 1 oz. of sugar candy. Boil the galls in 6 qts. of water until but 3 qts. remain; strain, and add the other ingredients, stirring the whole till dissolved.

Ink may be kept from moulding by keeping a few cloves in the bottle. Common writing ink is much more permanent, if *Indian ink*—which is lampblack made into a cake with isinglass—is dissolved in it, 1 oz. to 3 qts. of ink.

Meconic Acid ($C^{14}HO^{11}.3HO$) is found in the poppy, in combination with morphia, and crystallizes in white, transparent scales.

Pyromeconic Acid. $C^{10}H^3O^5.HO$.

Comenic Acid ($C^{12}H^2O^3.2HO$) is obtained from the meconic by boiling its aqueous solution.

Pyrogallic Acid ($C^6H^3O^3$) is obtained by heating gallic acid to 419°.

Metagallic Acid ($C^{12}H^3O^3$) is formed by heating gallic acid to 480°.

Ellagic Acid ($C^7H^2O^4$) is very similar to the preceding.

Succinic Acid ($C^4H^2O^3HO$) exists in amber, and is obtained by the aid of heat. It is obtained in three states:—1. Combined with an atom of water, which, when pure, is the crystallized acid of the shops. 2. With $\frac{1}{2}$ an atom of water, produced by keeping the crystallized acid for a long time between the temperatures of 260° and 284°. 3. Anhydrous. The compounds which this acid forms with bases are termed *succinates*.

Moroxylic Acid is found, in combination with lime, on the bark of the white mulberry.

Oleic Acid ($C^{44}H^{39}O^4$) is obtained from the soap made from linseed oil and potassa. It burns like the fixed oils, and forms salts, or soaps, called *oleates*. When olive oil is mixed with half its weight of concentrated sulphuric acid, three acids are formed, one of which has been called *sulpho-oleic ;* and this, when decomposed, affords *hydro-oleic* acid.

Crenic Acid (108) was discovered by Berzelius, in 1832, in the water of Porla well, in Sweden. It is inodorous, a sharp, followed by an astringent taste, yellow and transparent; very soluble in water and in alcohol. When the solution is exposed to the air, *apocrenic* acid is formed. Its salts are termed *crenates*, and resemble extracts in appearance, but are incapable of crystallizing.

Apocrenic Acid (132) was obtained by digesting the ochre

of Porla well with potassa, and precipitating the acid by means
of acetate of copper. The apocrenate of copper falls, from
which the acid is separated by the action of hydrosulphuric
acid, absolute alcohol, and potassa. It is a brown substance,
resembling a vegetable extract. Crenic and apocrenic acids
have been detected in many waters, and in the vegetable
mould of soils.

Section IV. *Vegetable Alkalies.*

The existence of vegetable alkalies was not known until the
present century, and very little attention was given to them until
1816. They all contain nitrogen, and unite with acids to form
salts, in which state they are found in the vegetable kingdom.
These salts exactly resemble those of metallic oxides. They
possess other properties, which prove their alkaline character.

The method of preparation is nearly the same for all of
these alkalies; the substance which contains one of them is
steeped in a large quantity of water, which dissolves the salt
that contains it; the solution is boiled for a short time with
lime or magnesia, and the vegetable alkali is set free in an
insoluble state, and may be collected on a filter with the lime;
if then boiled in alcohol with powdered charcoal, it is dis-
solved by the former, and purified by the latter; then, by
filtering while hot, it is separated from the charcoal, and the
lime with which it was mixed; it is deposited from the alco-
hol on cooling, by evaporation.

Morphia. $C^{34}H^{20}NO^{6} = 284$. This alkali is the narcotic
principle of opium, in which it is combined with sulphuric
and meconic acids, and is associated with several other vege-
table alkalies, and with gummy, resinous, and coloring mat-
ters. Opium contains about nine and a half per cent. of mor-
phia; when pure, it is very insoluble in water, and conse-
quently but little poisonous; but when in the state of a salt,
as in opium, it is a very powerful poison; one half a grain in
solution will produce alarming effects on the animal system.

When opium has been administered as a poison, the presence of its morphia may be detected by a process too elaborate to be inserted here. A skilful chemist will detect a single grain of morphia in 700 grains of water. Some of the salts of morphia are useful as medicines; of which the *hydrochlorate* and *acetate* are the principal.

Narcotina ($C^{46}H^{24}NO^{16}$) was discovered by Desrone, in 1803, and is obtained from opium; it is a white substance, and may be taken into the human stomach without sensible effects, but it is speedily fatal to dogs.

Cinchonia ($C^{20}H^{12}NO$) and *Quinia*, ($C^{20}H^{12}NO^2=162.$) These two alkalies were detected by Pelletier and Caventou, in 1820, in Peruvian bark, and impart to it its value as a medicine. *Cinchonia* is found in the pale bark; *quinia*, with a little cinchonia, in the yellow bark; and both in the red bark. Cinchonia is insoluble in cold water, and nearly so in hot water; in boiling alcohol it is freely dissolved, and the solution has an intensely bitter taste; some of its salts are soluble in water.

Quinia, or *Quinine*, is also almost insoluble in water, but with alcohol forms an intensely bitter solution.

Quinia forms several salts, one of which, the *sulphate*, is manufactured in large quantity for medical purposes, and is commonly sold by the name of *quinine*. It is soluble in alcohol, or slightly in pure water, and freely if the water is slightly acidulated by sulphuric acid; the solution, although containing but a minute portion of quinia, is intensely bitter.

On account of its high value, sulphate of quinia is often adulterated with gum, starch, sugar, magnesia, and various other substances; gum and starch are insoluble in alcohol, and may be detected by dissolving the suspected quinia in boiling alcohol. Sugar may be detected by adding pearlash to the solution in water, when the quinia will be thrown down, and the sweet taste may be perceived; magnesia will be left after burning a portion of the adulterated article.

17

Strychnia ($C^{44}H^{23}N^2O^4$) was discovered in 1818, by Pelle-tier and Caventou. This remarkable alkali is found in the *nux vomica* and in the *upas-tree.* It is freely soluble in alco-hol, and but slightly so in water; although nearly insoluble in the latter, the minute portion which is taken up, commu-nicates to the water the most intense bitterness; a single grain of strychnia will render eight gallons of water bitter. It is one of the most virulent poisons yet discovered; half a grain in the throat of a rabbit occasioned death in five min-utes. Its action is always accompanied by symptoms of *locked-jaw.*

Emetia. This alkali constitutes 16 per cent. of *ipecac-uanha,* and appears to be the sole cause of its emetic prop-erties.

Sanguinaria is a peculiar alkali, discovered, by Mr. Dana, in the *blood root,* (sanguinaria Canadensis.) Its salts have a red color.

Nicotina is the peculiar principle of tobacco; it is a viru-lent poison.

Codeia, ($C^{35}H^{20}NO^5$) discovered in 1832, by Robiquet, in the hydrochlorate of morphia. When taken into the stomach in doses of from 4 to 6 grains, it produces an excitement sim-ilar to intoxication, followed by depression, nausea, and vom-iting.

Brucia ($C^{44}H^{25}N^2O^7$) resembles strychnia, and may be procured from the *nux vomica.* It is intensely bitter, less poisonous than strychnia, but similar in its effects.

Conia ($C^{12}H^{14}NO$) is the active principle of *conium-macu-latum,* or hemlock, and is the most virulent poison known, with the exception of hydrocyanic acid.

Parilla, or *Parillina,* exists in the common sarsaparilla of commerce. Its color is white, taste sharp and bitter, and, when swallowed to the extent of 13 grains, produces nausea, vomiting, diminishes the rapidity of the circulation, and acts as a sudorific.

Section V. *Oils and Fats.*

The oils are divided into *fixed* and *volatile oils*. The former are not much affected by a heat which does not decompose them, while the latter rapidly pass away in vapor. The greasy stain of the former on paper, or any other surface, is permanent; that of the latter soon disappears.

1. *Fixed Oils.* The fixed oils are usually obtained from seeds; as the almond, linseed, and poppy-seed. *Olive oil*, however, is extracted from the pulp around the stone. The density of these oils is less than water, varying from .9 to .96. They are solid at a low temperature. They burn with a clear, white light. By exposure to the air, they become rancid, and at length viscid. In this change, oxygen is absorbed; and the oil itself probably undergoes some change, although it has been supposed that rancidity was caused by the acidification of some mucilage present. By heating the oil in open vessels, it acquires the property of drying rapidly; in which process much oxygen is absorbed, and carbonic acid and hydrogen given off. *Drying oils* are used for paint, and, when mixed with lampblack, constitute printers' ink. Drying oils sometimes absorb oxygen so rapidly as to set fire to combustibles. Spontaneous combustion often occurs where cotton has been moistened with them.

By means of mucilage or sugar, the fixed oils may be permanently suspended in water. Such a mixture is called an *emulsion*. With ammonia, they form a soapy liquid called *volatile liniment*, which is a direct compound of oil and the alkali. The fixed alkalies have a similar action in the cold, but, when heated, *soap* is generated. When acted upon by alkalies, with the aid of heat, they are separated into acids, which combine with the alkalies to form soaps, and into another compound, called

Glycerine. $C^6H^7O^5$,HO. This substance is easily formed

by heating a mixture of olive, or some other oil, oxide of lead, and water; an insoluble soap of lead is formed, and a sweetish substance is separated by the water, which appears to act as the base of the oil, the acid of which combines with the lead. The solution is acted upon by sulphuret of hydrogen, with the addition of animal charcoal, filtered and evaporated *in vacuo.*

Properties. When pure, glycerine is a viscid liquid, sp. gr. 1.27, very sweet taste, soluble in water, volatizes in part when exposed to heat, and is converted by the action of nitric acid into oxalic acid. It forms a compound acid with sulphuric acid, the *Sulpho-glyceric acid,* $C^6H^7O^5,2SO^3$.

When glycerine is heated with any body having a strong affinity for water, a new compound is formed having the peculiar pungent odor of burnt fat, called *Acroleine,* $C^6H^4O^2$. Glycerine is combined with several acids, giving rise to *Stearine, Margarine,* and *Oleine.*

Stearine exists in tallow, from which it may be separated by means of hot ether. It is a white crystalline solid. By the action of caustic alkalies,

Stearic Acid ($C^{68}H^{66}O^6,2HO$) is separated from the glycerine. This acid is insoluble in water, but very soluble in alcohol and ether, fuses at 167°, and possesses distinct acid properties. It unites with the alkalies, and forms soaps, all soluble in water; while the stearates of the metallic oxides are insoluble.

Margarine exists, also, in many fats, and is obtained by evaporating the ethereal solution, and absorbing the oil with blotting-paper. It differs but slightly from stearine, and when acted upon by alkalies, it yields glycerine, and

Margaric Acid, ($C^{68}H^{66}O^5,2HO,$) a substance very analogous to stearic acid, containing only one eq. of oxygen less, and forming similar salts, the *margarates ;* melts at 140°, and when digested with nitric acid it yields suberic and succinic acids, and several other products.

Oleine is a white combustible liquid, lighter than water, obtained from olive oil by means of cold, which causes the margarine to crystallize. By the action of alkalies it also yields glycerine, and

Oleic Acid. $C^{36}H^{33}O^3,HO.$ This acid is obtained from the soap made of linseed oil and potassa. It is combustible, and resembles oleine in its properties, rapidly absorbing oxygen from the air, and uniting with alkalies and forming soaps. When heated it is decomposed into

Sebacic Acid. $C^{10}H^8O^3,HO.$

Palm Oil, which is used extensively in the manufacture of yellow soap, is obtained by boiling and pressing the fruits of the *elais guianensis*, growing in Africa. It is of the consistency of butter, has an orange-red color, with an aromatic odor. It is a mixture of oleine and palmatine. The soap formed by this oil with alkalies, when decomposed, is found to contain a new acid, called

Palmitic, ($C^{32}H^{31}O^3,HO,$) which is similar to the margaric acid in appearance, and fuses at the same temperature, 140°.

Cocoa Oil, which is extracted from the kernel of the cocoanut, is a white substance, consisting of oleine and a solid fatty matter used for making candles. By the action of alkalies we obtain a peculiar fatty acid, the

Cocinic Acid. $C^{37}H^{26}O^3.$

Olive Oil is extracted from the fruit of the common olive, (*Olea Europea*,) and is used as an article of luxury. When mixed with nitrous acid, it yields a fatty crystalline body called *Elaidine*, and this body by saponification gives rise to *Elaidic Acid*, $C^{72}H^{66}O^5.$

Croton Oil is obtained from the *croton tiglium* of the East Indies, and possesses powerful purgative properties. It is used in medicine.

Train Oil is obtained from the blubber of the right whale, and is much inferior for lights to *spermaceti*.

Spermaceti is obtained from the blubber of the sperm

whale, and from a large cavity in the head, from which twelve or fifteen barrels of liquid oil are sometimes dipped out. This substance is strained through stout bags, which are subjected to a strong pressure. The solid which remains is *spermaceti*, of which candles are manufactured, and the liquid is the spermaceti oil. As the oil is more liquid in hot weather, *summer strained oil* contains more spermaceti, and a given quantity will therefore produce more light, and burn less freely than *winter strained oil ;* the latter is usually preferred, as giving a clearer light, and as being less affected by cold, but it is much less economical.

Hog's Lard and *Suet* are well-known substances, differing much in respect to their point of fusion. A very good oil has been obtained from hog's lard, by pressing it in strong bags. It is nearly equal, for giving a white clear light, to sperm oil.

Soaps. When any of the animal or vegetable oils or fats are boiled with a solution of potassa or soda, they are converted into oleic, margaric, or stearic acids, and another principle, glycerine ; the acids unite with the alkalies and form soaps. All the various kinds of soap have a similar constitution. Soft soaps are formed from fat and potassa ; hard soaps contain soda as their base. They are soluble in water, and are extensively used in the arts and in culinary operations ; but when lime, oxide of lead, and many other metallic compounds, are mixed in solutions of soap, the acids combine in preference with these oxides, and form *insoluble* compounds ; hence, hard water, containing salts of lime, curdles soap.

Butter consists of a solid crystalline fat, an oil, a yellow coloring matter, and a little caseine, which latter substance does not belong to its constitution. The oil is a mixture of oleine, and a fatty substance, *butyrine*, which by the action of alkalies, forms soaps ; and these, when decomposed, are found to contain three acids, *butyric, capric,* and *caproic acids.*

Butyric Acid ($C^8H^7O,^3HO$) has a sour taste, and an odor resembling rancid butter. It is a colorless, oily liquid, sp. gr. .976, soluble in water, and has lately been formed by the fermentation of starch. The other acids are very similar to butyric, but are less soluble in water.

Wax. The various kinds of wax, such as bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and cowtree-wax, are regarded as similar in composition with fats, and are classed by some chemists with them.

Ambergris, found floating on the surface of the ocean, is supposed to be a concretion formed in the stomach of the sperm whale.

2. *Volatile* or *Essential Oils.* The flavor of aromatic plants is owing to the presence of volatile oils, which are obtained by distillation. Water must be added to the plants to keep them from burning. Some, however, are obtained by expressing the rinds of certain fruits, such as the *orange, lemon, bergamot.* Although usually of an agreeable odor, those oils have an unpleasant, acrid taste ; but, when diluted, some of them have an agreeable taste. They are but slightly soluble in water, and are freely dissolved in alcohol. Such solutions are commonly sold under the name of *essences.* Like the fixed oils, they burn with a clear, white light. They have the property of dissolving sulphur, and the solution is called *balsam of sulphur.*

A few of these oils—as the oil of turpentine, of lemons, and of copaiva—contain only carbon and hydrogen ; others contain oxygen also. A few contain one or more additional elements, as sulphur and nitrogen.

The principal volatile oils are, oil of turpentine, lemons, anise, juniper, camomile, caraway, lavender, peppermint, rosemary, camphor, cinnamon, cloves, sassafras, mustard and bitter almonds.

Common Spirits of Turpentine consists of resin dissolved in the oil of turpentine—which last may be obtained by distillation.

Camphor is a volatile oil, solid at common temperatures. On account of its toughness, it is pulverized with difficulty, unless a few drops of alcohol are added. It is insoluble in water, but is freely soluble in alcohol. *Artificial camphor* may be formed by passing a current of hydrochloric acid gas through oil of turpentine or oil of lemons. Camphor is very offensive to insects, which are prevented from devouring cabinets of natural history, collections of birds, insects, etc., by placing pieces of camphor in the cases.

Resins. Resins are the concrete juices of plants, solid, brittle, and without taste; they are good non-conductors of electricity, and, by friction, become negatively electrified; they are easily melted, and burn with a yellow flame and dense smoke. They are soluble in alcohol, ether, and the essential oils, but are quite insoluble in water.

Common Resin is procured by heating turpentine; the volatile oil is expelled, and resin remains. It is a mixture of pinic acid ($C^{20}H^{15}O^2$) and sylvic acid ($C^{40}H^{30}O^4$.)

Turpentine is the juice of several species of pine-trees. Other resins are: *copal, lac, mastic,* and *dragon's blood.*

Copal is the most important, and is used for varnish. *Indian ink* is a solution of *borax, lac,* and *lampblack.*

The uses of resin are various. Dissolved in oil or alcohol, and diluted with spirits of turpentine, they form various kinds of varnish. *Sealing-wax* is made of lac, turpentine, and common resin. It is colored red with cinnabar or red lead, or black with lampblack.

The soot, which is procured from the combustion of resinous wood, turpentine, or resin, is *lampblack.* When turpentine is extracted by heat, it is partially changed, and becomes *tar.* When tar is thickened by boiling, it becomes *pitch.*

Amber is a fossil substance, consisting of a peculiar bituminous matter and resin; it often contains insects.

Balsams are the juices of some kinds of trees. Some are

solid, others are liquid. They are composed of resin and benzoic acid.

Gum Resins are the hardened juices of certain plants, consisting of resin, gum, and volatile oil. Their proper solvent, therefore, is a mixture of alcohol and water, or common spirits. They are numerous, and many of them are valuable medicines ; among them are *aloes, assafœtida, galbanum, gamboge, myrrh,* and *guaiacum.*

Caoutchouc, or India rubber, is obtained from four species of trees, two of which grow in South America, and two in the East Indies. It is usually black, but when not darkened by smoke, is of a whitish color. It burns with a bright flame ; is insoluble in water or alcohol. It is soluble in ether, the essential oils, etc. If a bag of it be soaked in ether, it will become soft and gelatinous before dissolving, and in that state may be blown out into a very large and thin bag. The most useful solvent of caoutchouc is a dark, volatile liquid, obtained by the careful distillation of caoutchouc itself ; about four-fifths of the solid pass over in this liquid form.

Wax. Wax is found in the pollen or dust of flowers, on some leaves as a kind of varnish, and especially on the berries of the wax plant, (*myrica cerifera.*) As bees deposit wax, when fed only on sugar, beeswax is an animal product. Wax is insoluble in water, and is sparingly dissolved by alcohol and ether. It is composed of two principles, *cerine* and *myricine.*

Creosote. This substance exists in tar, and in pyroligneous acid. It is a colorless, oily liquid, with an odor like smoked meat. It has a burning taste, followed by sweetness. Its most remarkable property is that of preserving meat. The antiseptic properties of smoke, and crude pyroligneous acid, appear to be owing to this substance. It is soluble in 80 parts of water, and freely in alcohol. Insects and fish are killed by the aqueous solution. It is said to be useful as a cure for toothache, ulcers, etc.

Section VI. *Coloring Matters.*

The most common colors in the vegetable kingdom are green, yellow, blue, and red. The greater part of the infinite diversity of colors consists of different shades or mixtures of these. The coloring matter of plants is usually diffused through other proximate principles. All vegetable colors are destroyed by chlorine, and usually changed by acids or alkalies.

Lakes are insoluble compounds of coloring matter with alumina, or oxide of iron or of tin.

Process. Dissolve alum in a colored solution, and, on adding an alkali, (as potassa,) alumina will be precipitated ; and, at the moment of separation from the alum, will combine with the coloring matter.

In dyeing, some colors have a sufficient affinity for the fibre of the cloth to remain fast on a mere immersion of it. In many cases, however, this is not sufficient, and the color would be removed by washing. A third substance is introduced, which, having an affinity both for the coloring matter and the cloth, fixes the former permanently to the latter. This third substance is called the *mordant* or *basis :* those which are in common use are, alumina in alum, oxide of iron in copperas, and chloride of tin, which is converted into the oxide. All the colors of dyed stuffs are produced from the four—blue, red, yellow, and black.

Blue Dyes. Indigo is the most important of these, and is obtained from several species of a genus of plants which are cultivated in America and Asia. The plants are fermented and beaten in water, at the bottom of which the indigo subsides. Common indigo contains, in addition to its peculiar blue, a red and a brown coloring matter, with some gluten. Pure indigo sublimes at 550° Fahr., and condenses in acicular crystals. It is insoluble in water, and but slightly solu-

ble in boiling alcohol ; it is soluble in sulphuric acid. If indigo be put into a tube with three times its weight of green vitriol, and an equal quantity of slacked lime, with water, the protoxide of iron will be precipitated by the lime from the green vitriol, and the indigo will be de-oxidized by it, and become yellow. Dyers dip their cotton cloth into it in this condition, and by exposure to air the cloth becomes permanently blue.

Pure Indigo is composed of $C^{16}H^5NO^2$, but when exposed to deoxidizing agents as above, it is reduced, and becomes *white*, having the formula $C^{16}H^5NO^2,H$.

When indigo is heated with dilute chromic acid, or SO^3, and bichromate of potassa, it forms a yellow solution, which, on evaporation, deposits orange-red crystals of

Isatine, ($C^{16}H^5NO^4$,) containing two additional equiv. of oxygen. By the action of alkalies, isatine takes up the elements of water, and forms

Isatinic Acid, ($C^{16}H^6NO^5$,) and this acid by the action of chlorine, forms two peculiar substances, called *chlorisatine*, ($C^{16}H^4NO^4Cl$,) and *bichlorisatine*. ($C^{16}H^3NO^4Cl^2$.) And by the continued action of chlorine on these latter substances, a volatile substance in crystalline scales, of a brown-yellow color, is formed, called *Chloranile*, ($C^6Cl^2O^2$,) which by the action of potash, gives rise to chloride of potassium, and *Chloranilate* of potash. From this latter substance *Chloranilic Acid* (C^6Clo^3) may be obtained, as a reddish powder.

By transmitting sulphuret of hydrogen through an alcoholic solution of chlorisatine, a white compound is formed, called *Chlorisatyde*.

By the continued action of nitric acid, upon indigo, anilic, or indigotic acid, ($C^{14}H^4NO^9$,) and carbazotic or picric acid, ($C^{12}H^2N^3O^{12}$,) are formed. The former forms colorless crystals, of a bitter taste, and the latter, yellow, brilliant prisms, of a very bitter taste. The *picrates* explode when heated.

Many other compounds are derived from indigo. **Sulphu-**

ric acid dissolves indigo with the formation of two acids. The *sulphindigotic acid* is the most important, because it is the substance used for coloring *Saxon blue*.

Red Dyes. The most common substances for red dyes, are cochineal, lac, archil, madder, Brazil-wood, and logwood.

Cochineal is obtained from an insect, which feeds upon the leaves of several species of the *cactus*, and derives its coloring matter from its food.

It is very soluble in water, and is fixed on cloth, by means of alumina or oxide of tin. Its natural color is crimson, but when bitartrate of potassa is added to the solution, it yields a rich scarlet dye. The beautiful pigment called *carmine*, is a *lake* made of cochineal and alumina or oxide of tin.

Archil is obtained from certain lichens, which grow in the Canary Islands. From the *Roccella Tinctoria* or archil plant, several compounds have been obtained.

Erythrilin, ($C^{32}H^{16}O^6$,) is a white powder. *Erythrin,* ($C^{20}H^{13}O^9$) which is formed into brilliant snow-white scales, becoming brown on exposure. *Amarythrin,* ($C^{22}H^{13}O^{14}$,) and several other bodies are also found.

The archil of commerce is obtained mostly from the *Parmelia,* but the principle most active in any of the lichens is *Orcein,* which is of a fine red color; with ammonia or potash it gives a most splendid purple color, and various lakes are formed from its combinations with alkalies and metallic oxides.

Litmus is prepared from archil, and from this substance, which is blue, red coloring matters are obtained.

Madder is the root of the *rubia tinctorum*, and contains a peculiar coloring principle.

Alizarin. ($C^{37}H^{14}O^{10}$.) It exists as a red powder, which may be made to form long slender needles, soluble in boiling water. There are several coloring matters obtained from

madder, as *Madder-purple, Madder-red, Madder-orange, Madder-yellow, Madder-brown.*

The most beautiful reds and purples are obtained from this substance, as well as those most durable—the *Turkey-reds* and *lakes.*

Yellow Dyes. The principal, are quercitron bark, tumeric, saffron, and fustic. Several distinct principles are found in these substances, which are the coloring matters in yellow dyes.

Black Dyes are prepared from the same ingredients as writing-ink. *Logwood* contains a crystalline reddish substance, called *Hematoxylin,* which is the coloring principle of black and blue-black.

SECTION VII. *Nutritive Substances.*

In addition to the substances already described, such as starch, sugar, lignin, &c., there exists in vegetables a distinct class of bodies, containing nitrogen, and small quantities of sulphur and phosphorus. They are the substances which nourish animals, and form, with but slight change of properties, the muscles of animals. They are also found in the blood and some other fluids of the animal body. These substances have a strong tendency to putrefaction when exposed to the air. They are, *Fibrine, Albumen, Legumine, Caseine, Proteine,* and *Gelatine.*

Fibrine. Vegetable fibrine may be obtained from wheat flour, by separating the starch ; the tenacious substance which remains is called *gluten,* (see p. 344) but it is mostly vegetable *fibrine.*

Animal fibrine is probably the same substance, somewhat changed by the animal organs. It is the basis of muscle, and exists in the blood, from which it may be obtained by stirring freshly drawn blood with a stick ; the fibrine adheres, and when washed, is a white substance, becoming somewhat horny on drying. When subjected to the **action**

of nitric acid, it throws off a large quantity of nitrogen , with acetic acid, it forms a jelly.

Albumen. Vegetable albumen exists in the juices of plants, and in their seeds.

Animal albumen is very similar, if not identical, with it ; and is found, in a solid state, in the skin, glands, and vessels of animals ; and in a liquid state in the serum of the blood, the fluid of dropsy, and the white of eggs. When liquid, it is coagulated by heat, as in the boiling of an egg, or by alcohol and the stronger acids. Corrosive sublimate is a very delicate test, producing a milkiness in water which contains $\frac{1}{200}$ part of albumen.

Legumine, Vegetable Caseine, exists in the seeds of beans and peas, from which it is obtained by the action of acetic acid. It resembles the curd of milk.

Animal Caseine is similar to the above, and is the substance known as milk curd. It is obtained from milk, in which it is held in solution by an alkali, by adding dilute acids. When milk sours and coagulates, lactic acid is formed from the sugar it contains, aided by caseine in a state of decomposition. *Rennet,* a substance formed by soaking the lining membrane of a calf's stomach in water, acts like caseine, and facilitates the coagulation of the milk, as in the manufacture of cheese. All these substances are identical in composition. They are formed by the vegetable, taken into the animal organism, and assimilated with but slight change of properties.

Proteine ($C^{40}H^{30}N^{5}O^{12}$) is obtained from either of the above substances by heating them in a dilute solution of potash, and adding acetic acid, a white solid is precipitated, which was discovered by Mulder, and named *proteine.* It differs from the substances from which it is derived by not containing sulphate of lime and salts of soda. It appears to be closely allied to albumen and fibrine, and nearly identical in composition.

Gelatine. $C^{13}H^{10}N^{2}O^{5}$. This substance is abundant in

the solid parts of animals, in the skin, cartilages, membranes, and bones. It is very soluble in boiling water, and forms a bulky jelly on cooling. One part in 100 of hot water will render the whole solid on cooling. The jelly is a hydrate of gelatine; and, if the water be expelled by gentle heat, it may be preserved for any length of time. This is known as *glue*, which is prepared from the ears, skins, and hoofs of animals.

Isinglass is a pure variety obtained from the sounds of fish. It is the gelatine which forms *leather* by uniting with tannic acid, and for this purpose the skins of animals are steeped in an infusion of oak or hemlock bark, and the gelatine forms an insoluble compound with the tannic acid.

*Glycocoll** or *Gelatine Sugar* ($C^4H^4NO^3.HO$) is formed by the action of sulphuric acid on gelatine, or isinglass; also by boiling hippuric acid with sulphuric or any of the stronger acids, benzoic acid and a salt of glycocoll are formed. This substance is then obtained by decomposing the salt.

Properties. A crystalline solid; taste sweet; neutral to test paper; soluble in water; nearly insoluble in alcohol; performs the part both of a *base* and of an *acid*, and forms a large number of compounds, by uniting with acids and bases

SECTION VIII. *Complex Animal Substances.*

Blood. Blood consists of a clear liquid, through which are diffused red globular particles. The liquid portion consists of water holding in solution fibrine, albumen, saline and oily matters. When set at rest it coagulates, forming a jelly. The red, or orange-red globules in the higher animals, are spherical and ellipsoidal, marked with a colorless spot in the centre. These globules are compound, consisting of a sack, which is allied to fibrine in composition, and a coloring matter which is called

Hematosin or *Hematine*. $C^{44}H^{22}N^3O^6Fe$. The iron is not,

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* A very able paper on Glycocoll and its compounds, may be found in Silliman's Journal, Nos. 9, 10, and 12, (1847,) by Prof. E. N. Hosford.

however, essential to its constitution, as it may be separated
from it. It has been supposed that the scarlet color of arte-
rial blood was due to peroxide of iron; but hematine is not
altered in color by this substance, nor is it changed by the
action of oxygen.

It is a brownish-red solid, and when in solution its color is
similar to venous blood. The color of this substance is
changed to that of arterial blood by the action of alkalies, so
that the change of color from red to scarlet, by the action of
the oxygen of the air, is not satisfactorily accounted for.
Mulder has suggested the hypothesis that the action of the
oxygen in the lungs upon the fibrine surrounding the blood
globules forms a layer of proteine, which is white, and
gives the scarlet tint. During the circulation, this matter is
taken up, and the globules appear dark again in venous blood.

Liebig ascribes the change of color which the venous
blood undergoes by the action of oxygen, to the peroxidation
of the iron in the blood. Thus venous blood contains car-
bonate of the *protoxide* of iron, which gives it the dark
color; but when it meets a stream of oxygen gas in the
lungs, the oxygen unites with the *protoxide* of iron; con-
verting it into the *binoxide*, which gives the arterial blood the
scarlet color; while the carbonic acid is expelled or cast out
in the atmosphere. During the circulation, the oxygen com-
bines with the worn-out tissues, forming carbonic acid, which
appears in venous blood, combined with protoxide of iron;
this protocarbonate is again decomposed by oxygen.

When blood is set at rest, it does not separate into the two
parts above mentioned, but into a red coagulum, called the
clot and the serum. The latter is a yellowish liquid. The
saline substances contained in the blood are carbonates,
phosphates, and sulphates of potassa and soda. It contains
also chloride of sodium, (*common salt*,) chloride of potassium,
and, as we have seen, oxide of iron. More than three-quar-
ters of the blood is water: coloring matter .125, and albumen

.067, though the proportions vary somewhat even in the same person at different times.

The following table, by M. Le Canu, represents the composition of the blood as derived from two careful analyses:—

Water, ...	780.145	785.590
Fibrin, ...	2.100	3.565
Coloring matter, ...	133.000	119.626
Albumen, ...	65.090	69.415
Crystalline fatty matter, ...	2.43	4.300
Oily matter, ...	1.310	2.270
Extractive matter, soluble in water and alcohol, .	.790	1.920
Albumen combined with soda, ...	1.265	2.010
Chloride of sodium, ... ⎫		
" of potassium, . . ⎪		
Carbonates ⎫ ⎬ . .	8.370	7.304
Phosphates ⎬ of soda and potassa, ⎪		
Sulphates ⎭ ⎭		
Carbonates of lime and magnesia, ⎫		
Phosphates of lime, magnesia, and iron, ⎬ .	2.100	1.414
Peroxide of iron, ⎭		
Loss, ...	2.400	2.586
	1000.000	1000.000

Animal Heat. There is a striking analogy between the process of combustion and respiration. In both cases, oxygen is consumed, and carbonic acid produced. This fact led Dr. Black to infer that the heat generated in the animal system was derived from the change which takes place in the lungs. That the development of animal heat is dependent upon respiration, is a matter of easy demonstration; but how the effect takes place, has not been satisfactorily explained. In those animals which consume a small quantity of oxygen, the temperature of their bodies varies with the surrounding medium, and are called *cold-blooded ;* but in those that consume a larger quantity of oxygen, the temperature is nearly uniform, whatever be the temperature of the medium. They are hence called *warm-blooded.* The temperature of the same animal varies often, according as the respiration is sluggish or rapid.

To account for animal heat, Dr. Crawford proposed the first consistent theory, which is founded on the supposition that the blood, when purified by the oxygen of the air, has

its capacity increased for caloric; and hence the heat pro-
duced in the lungs by the consumption of the oxygen, enters
into an insensible state in the arterial blood.   As this blood
circulates through the system and enters the veins, it loses its
capacity, and gives out its caloric. But Dr. Davy denies that
there is any difference between the capacity of venous and
arterial blood.   If, however, we suppose that the oxygen does
not combine with the carbon in the lungs, but in the course
of circulation, there would be heat developed in all parts of
the system; and this view would account for the facts, irre-
spective of the different capacities of the two kinds of blood.

MM. Dumas and Boussingault have proposed a theory
which is received with much favor by chemists.   They sup-
pose that the oxygen of the air on entering the blood, con-
verts its soluble matters into lactic acid, which unites with
soda, forming lactate of soda.   The oxygen converts the lac-
tate into carbonate of soda.   A new portion of lactic acid de-
composes this salt and liberates the carbonic acid, which
appears in the venous blood.   In this case there is a true
combustion—the combination of oxygen with carbon.   But
whatever view be adopted of the action of oxygen in pro-
ducing animal heat, there can be no doubt but that the union
of the oxygen of the air with the worn-out tissues of the body,
and with substances taken as food, which are rich in hydro-
gen, as oils, fats, &c., are sufficient to account for the
heat which is generated in the animal system.   The action
of oxygen is to burn up the system, 1st, by uniting with those
particles which have served their purpose in the animal
economy, and must be removed, and their places supplied
with others endowed with a higher degree of vitality, and
2dly, by combining with that portion of the food which is in-
tended for respiration, and not for nutrition.

Water and carbonic acid are the products of this combus-
tion, and are not only expelled through the lungs, but ex-
haled from all parts of the body.

Saliva. This liquid contains only seven parts of solid matter in a thousand. It contains chloride of potassium, sulphate, phosphate, acetate and carbonate of potassa, with some other salts, and an animal substance called *ptyaline*. It forms a soft, pulpy mass with the food in mastication, preparing it for more easy digestion.

Gastric Juice. This fluid taken from an empty stomach has a saline taste, and is neutral. But when any substance enters the stomach, acid is secreted. Both hydrochloric and acetic acids are formed. All nutritious substances are dissolved by this juice, and converted into a pulpy mass called *chyle*. It does not act on living substances, or the stomach itself would be dissolved, as sometimes is the fact after death. Its solvent power is due to the acids, which are greatly aided by the temperature of the stomach. By taking magnesia, the acids are neutralized, and the digestive power suspended for the time. The gastric juice consists mostly of *pepsin*.

Bile. The bile is a yellow or greenish, nauseous liquid, of which $\frac{7}{8}$ are water, and the remainder a peculiar bitter principle called *bilin*, with resin, and several salts. The bile stimulates the intestinal canal, and assists in converting the chyme into *chyle*.

The *bilin* is translucent, colorless, and inodorous, with a bitter and somewhat sweetish taste. In the resinous portion, a white earthy substance has been obtained, called *dyslysin*.

Taurin ($C^4H^7NO^{10}$) is another substance, which has been derived from the bile. It is a crystalline solid, neutral and of a weak taste. Several acids have also been obtained from bile : *cholic acid*, which crystallizes in fine needles, and has a sharp sweet taste ; *fellinic acid*, which is a white, inodorous, and bitter solid, fusing at 212° ; *cholinic acid*, also, a whitish substance, insoluble in water, but soluble in alcohol ; *bileverdin*, a greenish-brown mass without taste, soluble in alkalies, and

Cholesterin ($C^{37}H^{32}O$.) which is also a constituent of the brain and nerves. It is a crystalline substance, and is found

in the greatest abundance in *gall stones*, which are solid con-
cretions in the gall bladder.

Chyle. This is a white fluid resembling milk. It contains
about 90 per cent. of water; of the other constituents, albu-
men is most abundant.

Milk. This liquid is well known to consist of cream,
curd, and whey. 100 parts of cream, of specific gravity
1.0244, contain only 4.5 parts of butter; of the remainder,
92 are whey, and 3.5 curd. The coagulation in sour milk is
produced by the generation of lactic acid, which, in common
with acids generally, separates the curd from the whey.
The same effect is caused by rennet prepared from a calf's
stomach, which is impregnated with the gastric juice, and
therefore contains acid. Milk is of course curdled when
taken into the stomach.

Lymph is a peculiar, limpid, transparent liquid, which
moistens the cellular membrane, and collects abundantly in
some dropsical affections. It consists chiefly of water, with
hydrochlorate of soda and albumen.

The *humors of the eye* contain more than 80 per cent. of
water; the other ingredients are albumen, muriate and ace-
tate of soda, pure soda, and an animal matter like curd,
which gives it a milky appearance.

The *tears* contain pure soda, chloride of sodium, and phos-
phate of soda, with water, and an animal matter analogous to
albumen.

Mucus is a fluid secreted by the mucous surfaces, as the
nose.

Pus is a liquid matter secreted by an inflamed and ulce-
rated surface. Its characteristic ingredient resembles al-
bumen.

Sweat is the vapor which constantly passes off from the
skin, and consists mostly of water, mixed with a little muriate
of soda, and free acetic acid, and perhaps formic acid.

Urine differs from most animal fluids in serving no ulterior

purpose in the animal economy. It is an *excretion* consisting of substances which would prove injurious to life and health. The urine is separated by the kidneys from the blood, and consists of a great variety of substances, such as water and urea, which are the principal, uric acid, lactic acid, lactate of ammonia, mucus, sulphates of potassa and of soda, phosphates of soda and of ammonia, muriates of soda and of ammonia, earthy matters with a trace of fluate of lime, and siliceous earth.

Urinary Calculi are solid concretions found in the urinary organs. The following are some of the varieties :—

Xanthic Oxide ($C^5N^2H^3O^2$) is among the most rare of these calculi, it is of a light-brown color, and may be known by its solubility in caustic potassa, from which it is precipitated by carbonic acid.

Cystic Oxide ($C^6NH^6O^4S^2$) is also rare ; color yellowish-white and brilliant waxy-lustre. It may be known by being soluble in caustic potassa, from which acetic acid separates it in the form of hexagonal plates.

Mulberry Calculus, (*Oxalate of Lime,*) *Bone Earth Calculus,* (*Phosphate of Lime,*) and *Ammoniaco-Magnesian Phosphate Calculus,* are more common, and may be known by very simple tests. Calculi are more commonly formed of uric acid and nitrate of ammonia.

Eggs. The shell of an egg is about $\frac{1}{10}$, the white $\frac{6}{10}$, and the yolk $\frac{3}{10}$ of the whole. The shell consists chiefly of carbonate of lime ; and the white, of albumen, with a little sulphur. The yolk contains phosphorus, which supplies phosphoric acid for forming the bones of the chicken.

Bones. Bones contain about $\frac{1}{3}$ of animal matter, $\frac{1}{2}$ of phosphate of lime, $\frac{1}{10}$ of carbonate of lime, with a little fluoride of calcium, and some other salts. *Teeth* have the same composition, but the enamel contains 78 per cent. of phosphate of lime. The *shells* of crustaceous animals, as *lobsters* and *crabs,* consist of carbonate and phosphate of lime, with ani-

mal matter; but the shells of molluscous animals, or *true shells*, as of the oyster, snail, etc., consist almost entirely of carbonate of lime and animal matter.

Horn differs from bone in containing only a trace of earth. The composition of the *nails, hoofs*, and *cuticle* of animals is similar to horn.

Tendons are composed almost wholly of gelatin.

The true *skin* has nearly the same composition. *Membranes* and *ligaments* contain in addition some substance which is insoluble in water, and is similar to coagulated albumen.

Hair contains a peculiar animal substance, insoluble in water at 212°, but soluble in a solution of potassa. It also contains an oil, which gives the peculiar color of the hair, *sulphur*, upon which the *nitrate of oxide of silver* acts in staining it, together with silica, iron, manganese, and carbonate and phosphate of lime.

Wool and *feathers* are similar in composition to hair.

Silk is covered with a peculiar varnish, which amounts to about 23 per cent.

Muscle. The *lean flesh* of animals consists essentially of fibrin, with numerous other ingredients, such as albumen, gelatin, a peculiar extractive matter called *osmazome*, fat, and salts.

Brain and Nerves. The brain consists of 7 parts of albumen, 5 parts of fatty matter, and 80 parts of water. The fatty portions contain two peculiar acids.

Cerebric Acid, which appears in white crystalline grains, soluble in boiling alcohol, and swells up like starch in contact with boiling water, without being soluble. It is combustible, fusing at a high temperature.

Oleophosphoric Acid is separated from the preceding by the action of ether. It is a viscid substance, forming soaps with alkalies. Cholesterin, olein and margarine, are also found

in the brain, with lime, phosphorus and soda. The nerves have a similar constitution.

Section IX. *Growth and Nourishment of Plants and Animals.*

Germination refers to the process by which a new plant originates from the seed. The seed consists of two parts. The *germ,* which is endowed with the vital principle, and the *cotyledons,* or *seed-lobes,* which furnish nourishment to the plant before it can derive it from the earth. The *germ* is composed of the *radicle,* or that part which descends into the ground, and forms the root, and the *plumula,* which rises into the air, and forms the stem of the plant.

The three conditions necessary to the germination of the plant, are moisture, a certain temperature, and oxygen gas. Dry seeds will not germinate, or, if moist, germination will not take place at 32°, nor at the temperature of boiling water, which deprives the germ of its vitality. The most favorable temperature is from 60° to 80°, varying with the nature of the plant. Air is also necessary to germination ; for if seeds are buried deep, excluded from the air, they will never pass through this process.

In the malting of barley, the process of germination may be accurately studied. The malting is done by exposing the grain to moisture, warmth, and air, until it begins to germinate, and then drying it in a kiln, where the temperature ranges from 100° to 160°, or more. The chemical changes which take place in this process, are the following : The *hordein,* an insoluble substance, is converted into starch, gum, and sugar, which are soluble and very nutritive substances, easily absorbed by the radicle of the plant ; at the same time, oxygen gas is consumed, and carbonic acid gas is given off.

Growth of Plants. There are many points of resemblance

between the growth of plants and of animals ; and also many points in which they differ. The plant absorbs carbonic acid, and yields oxygen, but the animal absorbs oxygen, and yields carbonic acid. The absorption of the acid by the plant is the natural mode of obtaining food. The oxygen it gives out is an excretion resulting from the assimilation of the carbon, but the absorption of oxygen by animals is for a very different purpose. It is to purify the system, by burning up particles which can no longer retain their vitality, and to keep the animal warm.

The growth of plants proceeds by continued or annual additions, which ever remain a portion of the trunk, but the growth of animals proceeds in a very different manner ; the matter of their bodies is continually changing.

Plants are nourished mostly by inorganic substances, while animals must have organized structures for their support.

Food of Plants. The food of plants has been a subject of much controversy. The elementary substances, oxygen, carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and a few metallic salts, are the only constituents of plants and of animals, and it would seem to be an easy matter to point out the source, and the mode in which they are assimilated or combined to form vegetable or animal bodies. But there is still some difference of opinion on the subject.

Source of Carbon. Carbon is the most abundant constituent of plants.

Whence do plants obtain it ?

There can be no doubt but that a large quantity of this substance is derived from the carbonic acid of the atmosphere ; for it is a well-settled doctrine among vegetable physiologists, that the leaves and green parts of plants absorb carbonic acid during the day, and by the aid of solar light, decompose it—assimilating the carbon, and yielding back the oxygen to the air. Carbonic acid is also generated by the decomposition of vegetable matter in the soil, and absorbed by

the water with which it enters the roots of plants, ascends to the leaves, where it is decomposed by the action of light.

So large a portion of the carbon of plants is derived from the carbonic acid of the atmosphere, that a distinguished chemist (Liebeg) has attempted to prove that carbonic acid is the *only* source of carbon. It is admitted by all chemists and vegetable physiologists that carbonic acid is the principal source, but other substances rich in carbon, such as the constituents of vegetable mould, which have been described under the names of *humus, humic acid, geine, ulmin,* may also furnish to plants a portion of their carbon.

It will be readily seen that previous to the formation of *coal beds,* the quantity of carbonic acid in the atmosphere must have been much greater than at present—for we find that coal originated from living vegetables—and these vegetables obtained their carbon mostly from the atmosphere. The quantity of carbonic acid in the atmosphere is easily estimated, and the quantity of coal or carbon which it is capable of yielding, in the form of wood, &c. The quantity of coal stored up in rocks can also be estimated with some degree of accuracy; and from those estimates, it is supposed that the atmosphere once contained at least five times as much carbonic acid at it does at the present time; and, hence, we may account for the absence of air-breathing animals in early geological times. Air-breathing animals make their appearance on the earth's surface immediately after the coal beds were deposited, and not before. If our atmosphere contained five times its present quantity of carbonic acid, it would prove injurious to animal life, perhaps, wholly destructive of it.

Source of Oxygen and Hydrogen. There can be but little doubt but that water yields both oxygen and hydrogen to plants, in fact, woody fibre contains oxygen and hydrogen in the same proportion as in water. A certain quantity of carbon united to the elements of water would form woody fibre;

but in some compounds hydrogen, and in others, oxygen, is in excess.

Hydrogen may be derived from ammonia, (NH^3,) and both oxygen and hydrogen from vegetable mould.

Source of Nitrogen. Nitrogen is derived from ammonia, which exists in the atmosphere and in all fermenting manures. Nitrogen may also be obtained from *nitre* and from vegetable mould.

The unorganized portions are all derived from the earth, absorbed through the roots, and with water, introduced into the circulation. Out of these simple elemental substances, vegetables manufacture all their peculiar principles. The nutritious matters pass first to the leaves, which seem to be the great organs of digestion and respiration ; from the leaves the matter descends between the bark and wood in exogens, and passing through several transformations, deposits a layer of new wood, which forms a ring of annual growth. The conditions of the growth of plants, and the means by which their products may be increased, belong to the science of Agricultural Chemistry. To the numerous works on that subject, the student is referred for full information.

Nourishment of Animals. Animals originate in a different manner from plants—the one from a *seed,* the other from an *egg ;* and yet the composition of animal bodies is identical with that of vegetables ; for, although animals are endowed with a higher degree of vitality than vegetables, they have not the power of forming any portion of an animal tissue, or any other animal substance, out of inorganic matter—they merely assimilate the substances which vegetables form. There is nothing in animal bodies which is not found in vegetables. The process of growth, however, is much more complicated, the nutritive matters taken from vegetables are assimilated and made a part of animal bodies, after having

passed through the process of digestion and purification by the action of oxygen.

The crude material passes through a process of purification, by which the nutritious matters are appropriated to the sustenance and service of the various organs. All substances, which are strictly nutritious, contain *nitrogen ;* hence, oils, fats, sugars, &c., are not strictly nutritious, and will not support life for a long time. All the animal tissues and organs contain nitrogen. That portion of their food which does not contain nitrogen, is used for the purposes of *respiration.* One object of respiration is to produce heat. It is easy to see, why it is that those animals which inhabit cold climates require a larger quantity of food for respiration, than those that live near the equator ; why more of such food is required in winter than in summer ? why those animals that pass into a torpid state during the winter, lay up large quantities of fat in the autumn, to be consumed in keeping their bodies at a temperature at which life can be maintained during the winter. An animal, during its torpid state, has a very sluggish respiration—yet sufficient oxygen enters the lungs to combine with the fat, to consume it, so that in the spring, they come out of their sleep, very much emaciated. In fact, an animal is like a furnace in one respect, it uses up fuel in the form of non-azotized food, and the worn-out tissues of the body, converting them into carbonic acid, water, and ammonia.

By the process of respiration, the oxygen of the atmosphere is consumed, and its place supplied by an equivalent volume of carbonic acid.

The process of respiration is not the only source of carbonic acid ; the process of combustion, also generates carbonic acid in large quantities ; the decomposition of vegetable matter is still another source—to this may be added a large quantity thrown into the atmosphere from changes going on among the rocks.

Why is not the atmosphere wholly converted into carbonic acid? Simply because this acid is absorbed by vegetables, its carbon assimilated, and its oxygen sent back to the atmosphere, as pure as at first, again to enter the animal organs, and to become the means of supplying to plants the carbon they need for their growth. This most intimate and beautiful relation of the vegetable and animal kingdoms, furnishes one, out of numberless illustrations of the Divine wisdom, which cannot fail to excite the admiration of every observer.

CHAPTER VI.

ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY.

It is the object of analytical chemistry to point out the method of separating compound bodies into their simple elements. As the subject is extensive, a few things only will be inserted here, in order to give the student an idea of the nature of the process.

Sect. 1. Analysis of Mixed Gases.

1. *Gaseous Mixtures containing Oxygen.* The best process by which oxygen gas may be withdrawn from gaseous mixtures, is by means of hydrogen gas. In case of the air, a given portion is taken, and rather more hydrogen added than is sufficient to combine with the oxygen. The mixture is then introduced into a strong glass tube, or eudiometer, (Fig. 102,) over water or mercury, and exploded by the electric spark. The total diminution in volume, divided by three, will give the quantity of oxygen present. Instead of exploding the gases, they may be made to combine slowly, by introducing into the mixture platinum sponge.

Fig. 102.
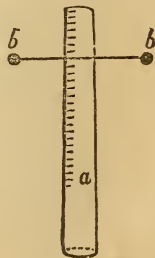
2. *Gaseous Mixtures containing Nitrogen.* As the air contains only oxygen and nitrogen, when other substances are withdrawn, if its oxygen is determined, the quantity of its nitrogen may be easily known. The only mode of ascertaining the quantity of nitrogen in any mixture, is to withdraw the other gases from it.

3. *Gaseous Mixtures containing Carbonic Acid.* When carbonic is the only acid gas present, as is the case with air and organic compounds, the process consists merely in absorbing this gas by lime water, or a solution of caustic potassa.

4. *Gaseous Mixtures containing Hydrogen and other Inflammable Bodies.* The quantity of hydrogen, when mixed with nitrogen, oxygen, or atmospheric air, is ascertained by adding a portion of oxygen, and exploding the mixture. The quantity of other inflammable bodies, such as carbonic oxide, light carbureted hydrogen, or olefiant gas mixed with nitrogen, is determined by adding a sufficient quantity of oxygen, and detonating the mixture. The diminution of volume indicates the quantity of hydrogen contained in the mixture, and by withdrawing the carbonic acid, the quantity of carbon may be known.

Sect. 2. Analysis of Minerals.

In order to analyze any mineral compound, the first object is to bring the body into a state of solution. This is effected, generally, by water or acids; but in cases where the substance is not dissolved by these, it is made into a paste, with three or four times its weight of fused borax, potassa, soda, baryta, or their carbonates, and subjected to a strong heat, in a platinum or silver crucible. By this means, the alkali combines with one or more of the constituents of the mineral, and then it is in a state to be acted upon by acids.

1. *Analysis of Minerals soluble in Acids with Effervescence.*

Reduce the mineral to a fine powder, and boil it for two hours in the acid which holds it in solution, diluted with five or six times its bulk of water. This solution may contain lime, baryta, magnesia, strontia, alumina, and oxides of metals.

1. Add to a small portion of the liquor, diluted with 20 parts of water,

sulphate of soda, and if a precipitate appear, *baryta*, or *strontia*, or both, are present. Nitric acid, diluted with an equal weight of water, will dissolve the strontia, if present, in the separated precipitate, but will not act upon the baryta.

2. Add to a portion of the liquid, ferrocyanate of potassa, and if metallic oxides are present, a precipitate will be thrown down, the color of which will probably show the kind of metal.

3. Carbonate of potassa will precipitate the lime, magnesia, and alumina, from which the *alumina* may be dissolved by a solution of potassa, and precipitated again by dilute hydrochloric acid.

Having precipitated the alumina, dilute hydrochloric acid will re-dissolve what remains, from which oxalate of ammonia will precipitate the *lime*.

Add to the remaining liquid, in successive portions, carbonate of ammonia and phosphate of soda, and *magnesia*, if present, will be precipitated.

II. *Analysis of Minerals which are insoluble in Acids.*

Heat a mixture of 1 part of the mineral to 3 of fused borax, for three hours, in a platinum crucible; dissolve the contents by digesting the whole in hydrochloric acid, for several hours; add carbonate of ammonia, and the whole will be precipitated; filter and wash the precipitate, to separate the borax, and re-dissolve in hydrochloric acid. If any matter remain, it is *silica*. The solution may then be tested as in the former case.

III. *Analysis of Minerals containing Carbonate of Lime, Silica, Oxide of Iron, and Magnesia.*

1. Reduce the mineral to a fine powder, and weigh out a given portion, as 1000 grs.; dry the powder just up to browning paper; the loss of weight is water.

2. Having put the powder into a flask, to which a cork with a bent tube is attached, (Fig. 103,) pour upon it water, and then hydrochloric acid, quickly inserting the stopper, and placing the tube in a vessel of baryta water; carbonic acid will escape through the tube into the solution of baryta, and form carbonate of baryta, which will be in fine powder. Filter and dry the residue; the weight will give the quantity of carbonic acid, 22 parts of acid being combined with 78 of baryta.

Fig. 112.

3. Dilute the liquor in the flask with water, throw it upon a filter, and wash; the insoluble matter is *silica*.

4. The washings of the filter contain a solution of the oxide and lime Precipitate the oxide with excess of ammonia; filter, wash, dry, and weigh; from this the iron may be estimated, as the oxide will contain 12 parts of oxygen, 9 of water, and 28 of iron. Oxalate of ammonia will precipitate the lime from the remaining liquor, which being filtered, washed, and burned in a crucible, *lime* only will remain. The magnesia, which is still in solution, may be precipitated by carbonate of ammonia in excess, and by adding phosphate of soda; filter, dry, and weigh; 100 parts will contain 40 of pure *magnesia*.

The Compounds of Silica, Alumina, and Iron, are decomposed by al-

kaline carbonates, at a red heat. For further processes, see Turner's Chemistry, or Rose's Analytical Chemistry.
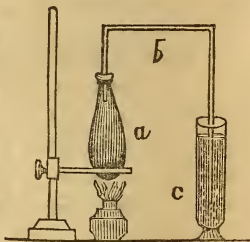
IV. *Tests of Metallic Ores.*

1. *Ores of Antimony* are first dissolved in nitrohydrochloric acid, which takes up all the sulphur. The *oxide* of antimony is then precipitated by simply adding water.

2. *Ores of Lead* are dissolved in nitric acid, with the exception of the sulphur, which may be separated by a filter; add to the solution carbonate of soda, and carbonate of lead will be thrown down. The silver, if present, will also be precipitated, and may be separated from the carbonate of lead by liquid ammonia, which holds it in solution.

3. *Ores of Mercury* are mixed with iron-filings or lime, and exposed, in an iron retort, to a strong heat; when the mercury will distil over.

4. *Ores of Zinc* may be boiled in nitric acid to dryness, and the process repeated. If iron is present, it will be peroxidated, and dilute nitric acid will dissolve out the zinc; filter the solution, and add liquid ammonia in excess; the lead, if present, will be precipitated, and the *zinc* will remain in solution. The oxide of zinc is obtained by boiling this solution to dryness.

5. *Ores of Tin.* As these ores usually contain silica, they must be first treated like an earthy mineral not soluble in acids. The tin will be detected by forming a purple solution with the chloride of gold.

6. *Ores of Iron.* The *peroxide of iron* is first rendered soluble by heating it for an hour with one eighth of its weight of powdered charcoal. The *black oxide* is soluble in dilute hydrochloric acid. If *phosphate* of iron is present, it may be detected by adding to the hydrochloric solution 10 parts of water, (which has been boiled, to separate the air,) placing it in a bottle corked tight, and set aside for 6 or 8 days, when the phosphate of iron will be precipitated. The filtered solution may contain oxides of iron, manganese, and zinc, all of which are thrown down by carbonate of soda. The *oxide of zinc* may then be separated by ammonia, and the *oxide of manganese* by acetic acid. The oxide of iron will then remain, and, after being ignited, will contain 72 per cent. of the pure metal.

7. *Ores of Copper* are boiled dry with five times their weight of sulphuric acid. The sulphate of copper which is formed is dissolved by water, and the metallic copper precipitated by a plate of clean iron.

8. *Ores of Silver* are dissolved by nitric acid. Immerse in the solution a plate of polished copper, and the silver will be precipitated upon it, if no lead is present. Common salt will throw down the chloride of silver.

9. *Ores of Gold and Platinum* are dissolved in nitrohydrochloric acid; the solution is then evaporated until nitrous acid fumes cease to appear, and the odor of chlorine is perceptible; the product is dissolved in water, and a solution of hydrochlorate of tin added, when a purple precipitate will be thrown down, if *gold* is present. If *platinum* is in the mixture, it may be precipitated by hydrochlorate of ammonia.

When the solution contains gold with other metals, the sulphate of the protoxide of iron precipitates the gold with the palladium, mercury, and silver, if present. As silver is most frequently present, common salt should be added previous to the sulphate of iron, to precipitate it.

Earthy Sulphates. The sulphate of lime is easily analyzed by boiling it for fifteen or twenty minutes in a solution of twice its weight of carbonate of soda. The carbonate of lime and sulphate of soda are

formed by double decomposition. The sulphate of soda is tnen de·
composed by chloride of barium, and the carbonate of lime analyzed in
the usual way.*

Sect. 3. Analysis of Mineral Waters.

The purest water is obtained by distillation. *Rain water*
or that from fresh fallen snow, is next in purity.

Well and *spring water* contain some salts, which are de·
rived from the soil through which the rain water passes .
hence the purity of water will depend upon the nature of the
soils. If it is filtered through primitive strata, such as gran-
ite, it will contain few salts, but if through secondary soils,
such as limestone and gypsum, it becomes impregnated with
various other substances, and is *mineralized*. Lime renders
it *hard*.

The different kinds of mineral water are *acidulous*, *alka-
line*, *chalybeate*, *sulphureted*, *saline*, and *siliceous springs*.

1. In *acidulous springs*, of which those of Saratoga and
Seltzer are examples, the acidity is due to the carbonic acid
with which their waters are impregnated; they frequently
contain protoxide of iron, carbonates of lime, magnesia, and
other saline compounds. The *carbonic acid* is easily expelled
by heat, and may be collected over mercury.

2. *Alkaline springs* are very rare; they generally contain
a free or carbonated alkali.

3. *Chalybeate springs*. These waters are characterized by
styptic, inky taste, and by striking a black color with infu-
sion of gall-nuts. The iron is either combined with hydro-
chloric and sulphuric acids, or exists in the form of proto-
carbonate, held in solution by free carbonic acid. On
exposure to the air, the protoxide is oxidized, and the hy-
drated peroxide subsides as an ochreous deposit, which is
commonly found in the vicinity of chalybeate springs. — T.

4. *Saline springs* owe their properties to saline compounds,
such as sulphates and carbonates of lime, magnesia, and so-
da, and the chlorides of calcium, magnesium, and sodium.

In the analysis of saline springs, the first object is to ascer-
tain the nature of the ingredients. Hydrochloric acid is
detected by nitrate of oxide of silver, sulphuric acid by chlo-
ride of barium; and if an alkaline carbonate be present, the
precipitates will contain a carbonate of oxide of silver, or of
baryta. Lime and magnesia may be detected, the former by

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* For other sulphates, see Turner, p. 241.

oxalate of ammonia, and the latter by phosphate of ammonia
Potassa is known by the action of chloride of platinum.   To
detect soda, the water should be evaporated to dryness, the
deliquescent salts removed by alcohol, and the matter insolu-
ble in that menstruum taken up by a small quantity of water,
and allowed to crystallize by spontaneous evaporation.   The
salt of soda may then be recognized by the rich yellow color
which it communicates to flame.   If the presence of hydri-
odic acid be suspected, the solution is brought to dryness, the
soluble parts dissolved in two or three drachms of a cold so-
lution of starch, and strong sulphuric acid slowly added. — T

Sulphureted springs are characterized by their odor, and
by the brown precipitate, which a salt of lead or silver occa-
sions.   This is owing to the hydrosulphuric acid gas which
they contain.   The quantity of gas is ascertained by boiling
the water, which expels it.

Fig. 113.

To detect Hydrosulphuric Acid. Take a flask,
with a tube bent twice at right angles, one end
of which dips into a solution of acetate of lead.
(Fig. 104.) Introduce the water into the flask,
and apply heat until it boils. The gas will be
driven off, and decompose the acetate, forming a
sulphuret of lead; filter, dry, and weigh. 16.1
parts will be sulphur, and 103.6 parts lead. $\frac{1}{16}$
part of the weight of the sulphur, added to its
weight, will give the weight of the *hydrosulphu-
ric acid*
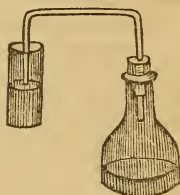
If the water, after being boiled, yields a black
precipitate, with acetate of lead, acetic acid must be added, and the
liquor boiled, and the gas passed through the acetate, as before.

The mode of estimating the solid matter held in solution in mineral
waters is simply to boil the whole to dryness, and weigh the residue.
The different kinds of matter are then detected in the usual way for
analyzing other solid bodies.

Test Tubes. For
the purpose of test-
ing substances in
solution, *test tubes*
(Fig. 105) are very
convenient.   They
are glass tubes, from
3 to 12 inches in
length, and from $\frac{1}{2}$
to 1 inch in diame-
ter, open at one end,
while the closed end
is so made that the
liquid may be heat-

Fig. 114.

15*
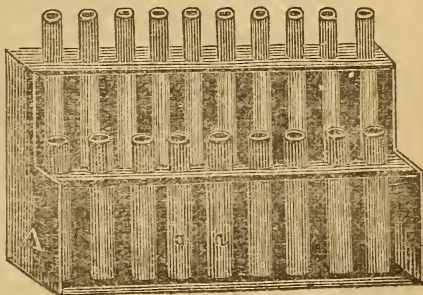
ed as in a retort. A small quantity of any solution may be examined in them with great facility, and they are especially convenient to form precipitates. These tubes may be placed upon a frame, as in the figure, and answer often the threefold purpose of retort, receiver, and test tube.

Filtration. When a solution has been prepared for examination, it ought to be perfectly clear. If it appears muddy, it must be subjected to *filtration ;* that is, it must be passed through a paper filter, by which means it is separated from solid matters, which make it appear opaque. As this operation frequently occurs in chemical analysis, and in various manipulations, it is important to understand the mode of performing it.

The *filtering paper* should contain no glazing or sizing, and should be folded in the following form : —

1. Take a square piece of paper, and fold it like a sheet of paper, that is, so as to bring two corners together ; then fold it so as to bring four corners together ; cut off the corners, and by opening the folds it will have the form of an inverted cone, and may be placed in a funnel.

Fig. 115.

2. But for filtering rapidly, the filter may be folded in the following form : — Fold the paper in two, as before ; then (Fig. 106) fold 10 upon 2, then 10 upon 6, then 1 10 upon 1 8, then 2 upon 8, then 2 upon 6, 2 upon 4, and 10 upon 4 : this will produce 7 folds, all on one side of the paper. Make, now, folds between each of these, so as to raise ribs on the opposite side of the paper. Cut out the projecting corners, to give the whole a circularshape ; open it, and form it into a cup. (Fig 107.)
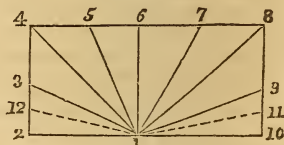
Fig. 116.

The filter may then be placed in the funnel *c*, (Fig. 108,) and supported by a lamp-stand or a wood-stand, made for the purpose; or it may be placed in the top of a tall jar. The liquid to be filtered is then put into it, and a vessel placed beneath to contain the liquid as it slowly passes through the paper. By this process, the solid and liquid parts are separated, and either may be examined in their separate state.*

Fig. 117.
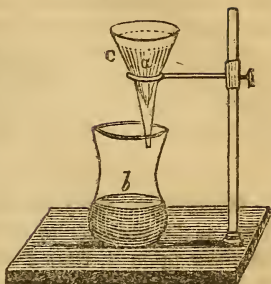
If it is desired to estimate the quantity of solid matter, the filter must be weighed previous to placing it in the funnel; and the solid matter, after being washed, by directing a fine stream of water upon it, until the water comes through tasteless, is dried and weighed: the difference of weight shows the quantity of solid matter.

Supports of filters and vessels may be of iron wire, made into the form of a triangle. (Fig. 109.) Take three pieces of iron or copper wire, and twist the ends as in the figure, leaving a triangular aperture: this may be placed upon the tops of jars and other vessels, or upon the rings of the lamp-stand, to support crucibles, evaporating dishes, retorts, filters, &c.

Fig. 118.

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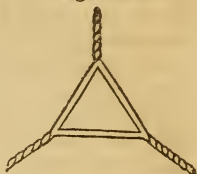
* For *chemical manipulation*, and *blowpipe analysis*, the student is referred to Griffin's Chemical Recreations.

APPENDIX.

Wollaston's Synoptic Scale of Chemical Equivalents. * —
The scale consists of a movable slider, with a series of
numbers upon it, from 10 to 320, on each side of which, and
on the fixed part of the scale, are set down the names of va-
rious chemical substances.

The scale is founded on the constancy of composition in
chemical compounds, the equivalent power of the quantities
that enter into combinations, and the properties of a logo-
metric scale of numbers.

The numbers are so arranged, that at equal intervals they
bear the same proportion to each other. The student will
easily observe and understand this, by measuring a few dis-
tances upon the scale, with a pair of compasses, or even a
piece of paper. If his paper extend from 10 to 20, it will
also extend from 20 to 40, or from 55 to 110, or from 160 to
320. Whatever number is at the upper edge of the paper
will be double at the lower. If any other distance be taken,
the same effect will be observed. If, for instance, the paper
extends from 10 to 14, then any other two numbers found at
its upper and lower edge will be in the same proportion as
these two numbers 10 and 14. Thus, make the upper num-
ber 100, and the lower number will be 140.

Now, supposing that the paper were cut of such a width
that, one of its edges being applied upon the scale to the num-
ber representing the equivalent of one body, the other should
coincide with the number of the equivalent of a second body;
then, upon moving the paper, wherever it was placed over the
numbers, those at its upper and lower edges would still rep-
resent the corresponding proportional quantities of the two
bodies as accurately as at first, because the numbers at equal

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* The paper, by its author, describing the scale, is inserted in the
Philosophical Transactions for 1814.

distances on the scale are proportional to each other. Thus, suppose the upper edge were made to coincide with 40 and the lower with 78, then the upper edge might be called sulphuric acid, and the lower baryta; and this width once ascertained, the paper, wherever applied upon the scale, would show at its lower edge the quantity of baryta necessary to combine with the quantity of sulphuric acid indicated by its upper edge.

It is evidently of no consequence whether the paper be moved up and down over the scale, or the line of numbers be moved higher and lower, to bring its different parts to the edges of the paper. And supposing the piece of paper just described to be pasted upon the side of the scale, then, by moving the latter, any of the numbers might be made to coincide with the upper or lower edge at pleasure, and consequently the quantity of sulphuric acid necessary to combine with any quantity of baryta, and vice versa, ascertained by mere adjustment and inspection of the scale. Or if, instead of referring to the separate piece of paper, marks were to be made on the side of the scale at 40 and 78, and named sulphuric acid and baryta, the same object would be attained, and the same method of inquiry rendered available.

Other substances are to be put down upon the scale exactly in the same manner. Thus, the scale being adjusted until the number 40 coincides with the sulphuric acid already marked, then sulphate of baryta is to be written at 118, and thus its place is ascertained; nitrate of baryta at 132; soda at 32; sulphate of soda at 72; and a similar process is to be adopted with every substance, the number of which has been ascertained by experiment. The instrument, which in this state merely represents the actual numbers supplied by experiment, will faithfully preserve the proportions thus set down, whatever the variation of the position of the slider may be. It is therefore competent to change all the numerical expressions to any degree required, the knowledge of one only being sufficient, first by adjustment, and then by inspection, to lead to the rest.

A few illustrations of the powers and uses of this scale will be sufficient to make the student perfect master of its nature and applications. Suppose that, in analyzing a mineral water, the sulphates in a pint of it have been decomposed by the addition of muriate of baryta, and the resulting sulphate of baryta washed, dried, and weighed; from its quantity may

be deduced the exact quantity of sulphuric acid previously existing in the mineral water. Thus, if the sulphate of baryta amount to 43.4 grains, the slider is to be moved until that number is opposite to the *sulphate of baryta*, and then at *sulphuric acid* will be found the quantity required, namely, 14.7 grains. In the same manner the scale will give information of the quantity of any substance contained in a given weight of any of its compounds; these having previously been deduced from experiment, and accurately set down on the table in the manner just explained.

If it be desired to know how much of one substance must be used in an experiment to act upon the other, it is evident that the equivalent must be taken, and this may be learned from the scale. Suppose that a pound of sulphate of baryta has been mixed with charcoal, and well heated, to convert it into a sulphuret, and that by the addition of nitric acid it is to be converted into nitrate of baryta. The quantity of acid which will probably be required may be learned by bringing 100 to sulphate of baryta, and then by looking for the number opposite nitric acid; it will be found to be 46. But this represents the quantity of dry acid; casting the eye therefore lower down, upon liquid nitric acid of a specific gravity of 1.50, it will be found that 61 lbs., or a little more, is the equivalent for 100 lbs., and consequently that 61 hundredth parts, or somewhat above $\frac{6}{10}$ of a pound of such acid, will be sufficient for the pound of sulphate of baryta operated with.

If a certain weight of carbonate of baryta be required in that moist and finely-divided state in which it is obtained by precipitation, and in which it cannot be weighed, the accuracy of the quantity may be insured by taking the equivalent of dry muriate, or nitrate of baryta, precipitating it by an excess of carbonate of potassa, and then washing off the salts which remain in solution. Suppose 100 grains of the carbonate were required; by bringing that number to carbonate of baryta, it will be found that the quantity of dry muriate necessary will be 105.8 parts, and the quantity of nitrate 133.4 ; and if the quantity of carbonate of potassa necessary for this purpose be also required, it will be found, opposite the name of that substance on the scale, to be a little less than 70 parts, so that 5 or 10 parts more will insure a satisfactory excess.

The second paragraph of Wollaston's description of this

scale may be transcribed, as a further illustration of the powers of the instrument. "If, for instance, the salt under examination be the common blue vitriol, or crystallized sulphate of copper, the first obvious questions are — (1) How much sulphuric acid does it contain? (2) How much oxide of copper? (3) How much water? He [the analytic chemist] may not be satisfied with these first steps in the analysis, but may desire to know further the quantities (4) of sulphur, (5) of copper, (6) of oxygen, (7) of hydrogen. As means of gaining this information, he naturally considers the quantity of various re-agents that may be employed for discovering the quantity of sulphuric acid, (8) how much baryta, (9) carbonate of baryta, or (10) nitrate of baryta, would be requisite for this purpose. (11) How much lead is to be used in the form of (12) nitrate of lead; and when the precipitate of (13) sulphate of baryta, or (14) sulphate of lead, are obtained, it will be necessary that he should also know the proportion which either of them contains of dry sulphuric acid. He may also endeavor to ascertain the same point by means of (15) the quantity of pure potassa, or (16) of carbonate of potassa, requisite for the precipitation of the copper. He might also use (17) zinc, or (18) iron, for the same purpose; and he may wish to know the quantities of (19) sulphate of zinc, or (20) sulphate of iron, that will then remain in the solution."

All these questions and points are answered by moving the slider until the number expressing the quantity operated with, coincides with *sulphate of copper crystallized.* 5, *Water.* Let it, for instance, be 100; this being brought opposite crystallized sulphate of copper, the information relative to all the above points, except the sixth and seventh, is supplied by mere inspection. The sixth may be supplied by substracting (5) the quantity of copper from (2) the quantity of oxide of copper, or by halving the quantity at 2 oxygen, or taking the third of that at 3 oxygen. The seventh relates to the quantity of hydrogen in the 5 water present in the salt; this quantity of hydrogen does not come within the line of numbers, but may easily be obtained by doubling the quantity of water, or doubling the quantity of the salt used, which will then bring 10 hydrogen into the scale, and the half of this is to be taken as the quantity in 5 water, or in 100 grains of the salt. Putting, therefore, 200 to sulphate of copper, 10 hydrogen, is indicated as 17 parts nearly, when of course the half of this,

or 8.5 parts, is the quantity in 100 grains of the crystallized salt of copper.

Whenever it thus happens that the number known or the number sought for is out of the scale, then some convenient multiplier of the numbers may be used. The most convenient method is to use the tens or the hundreds as units, or, what is the same thing, to consider for the time that decimal points are inserted between the units and the tens, or between the tens and the hundreds of all the numbers on the scale. Thus, if it were required to ascertain how much magnesia and sulphuric acid were contained in a pound of crystallized sulphate of magnesia, no 1 exists upon the scale, and of course no fractions or small parts of 1 ; but imagine decimal points between the tens and the hundreds, then 10 upon the scale becomes one tenth, 22 twenty-two hundredths, 100 one, 220 two and two tenths, and so on. Bringing, therefore, 100 to crystallized sulphate of magnesia, it represents the 1 pound, and by inspection it will be found that it contains 16 hundredths of a pound of magnesia, and $32\frac{1}{3}$ hundreds of a pound of sulphuric acid.

As another illustration, suppose that the quantity of magnesia in 50 lbs. of crystallized Epsom salt were required; upon bringing 50 opposite the name of the salt, the quantity of magnesia will be found smaller than any quantity expressed upon the scale ; but all that is necessary to obtain the answer is, to double the quantity of the salt, and then to halve the quantity of magnesia indicated ; in which way it will be found that the 50 lbs. contain about 8 lbs. of the oxide.

These *Synoptic Scales* are generally constructed of paper or wood. It is almost impossible that they should be accurate, because of the extension and contraction of the paper, and the facility with which it yields to mechanical impressions, and may be stretched when in a moistened state. These scales should never be considered as accurate when they first come from the instrument-maker. They may be examined by a pair of compasses or a piece of paper, to ascertain how nearly equal intervals on the scale of numbers accord with equal proportions between the numbers at the extremities of those intervals, and thus the degree of error in them, and the part where it exists to the greatest extent, may be observed ; but it will be useless to do so with the view of finding one so accurate as to dispense with calculation in exact analytical experiment.

Those scales which are laid down directly upon wood, though not liable to the same sources of error as the paper scales, are still seldom, if ever, so accurate as to compete with calculation. — W.

Cementing. 1. When vapors of watery liquors, and such others as are not corrosive, are to be confined, it is sufficient to surround the joining of the receiver to the retort with slips of wet bladder, or of linen, or paper, covered with flour paste, or mucilage of gum arabic.

2. Soft cement is made of yellow wax melted with half its weight of turpentine and a little Venetian red to give it color. It can be easily moulded by the fingers, and sticks well to dry substances.

3. For containing the vapors of acid, or highly-corrosive substances, *fat lute* is made use of. This is formed by beating perfectly dry and finely-sifted tobacco-pipe clay, with painters' drying oil, in a mortar, to such a consistence that it may be moulded by the hand. To use it, it is rolled into cylinders of a convenient size, which are applied, by flattening them, to the joinings of the vessels, which must be quite dry, as the least moisture prevents the lute from adhering The lute, when applied, is to be covered with slips of linen spread with the lime lute; which slips are to be fastened with pack-thread.

4. When penetrating and dissolving vapors are to be confined, the lute to be employed is of quick lime slacked in the air, and beaten into a liquid paste with white of eggs. This must be applied on strips of linen; it is very convenient, as it easily dries, and becomes firm. This lute is very useful for joining broken china ware.

5. For cementing stone ware to metals and wood, litharge and red lead mixed and worked up with spirit of turpentine, makes a good cement. It takes several days to give off the turpentine and become dry and hard.

6. Cement for fastening brass necks upon glass jars, etc.: — 4 parts of rosin, 1 of wax, and 1 of finely-powdered brick are melted and well mixed together. It is to be put on warm, but care is to be taken not to apply it so hot as to split the glass. It holds very hard.

7. Mix linseed meal with water, and knead it into a stiff paste. It soon hardens, and withstands the fumes of acids and ammonia. It is better if made with lime water, or thin glue. It is charred by a strong heat.

8. Thick gum water, with pipe clay and iron-filings. Mix well. It becomes very hard and firm, and is fit to be used where it is required to hold good a considerable time.

9. Plaster of Paris, stirred up with milk, starch water, or thin glue. It hardens immediately, and is very good for securing tubes in flasks, when the corks do not fit well, and gases are to be prepared in them.

10. Dissolve melted India rubber in boiling linseed oil and afterwards thicken the latter with pipe clay till it forms a stiff mass. The thorough incorporation of the pipe clay demands a great deal of labor. This is a capital cement to be used when acids are to be prepared.

11. *Cement for fastening Labels upon Bottles.* Soften and subsequently boil glue in strong vinegar. During the boiling, thicken it with flour. This mixture can be preserved in a soft state without becoming mouldy. It should be put into a glass bottle, with a wide neck and a ground stopper. When it is to be used, it is taken out of the bottle on the point of a spatula, warmed over the lamp, if too thick for use, and then spread upon the paper.

12. *Universal Cement.* Curdle skim milk, press out the whey, break the curd in small pieces, dry it, and grind it in a coffee mill. Take ten ounces of dry curd, one ounce of fresh burnt quick lime, and two scruples of camphor. Mix the whole intimately, and preserve it in small, wide-mouthed bottles, closely corked. When it is to be used, mix it with a little water, and apply it immediately.

13. *Diamond Cement for Glass or Porcelain.* Dissolve five or six pieces of gum mastic, as large as peas, in the smallest possible quantity of alcohol. Mix this liquid with two ounces of a strong solution of isinglass, (made by softening and dissolving isinglass in boiling brandy or rum to saturation,) having previously incorporated the two ounces of isinglass solution with two or three small pieces of galbanum or gum ammoniac, by trituration. The mixture is to be preserved in a well-closed bottle, and is to be gently heated by holding the bottle in hot water at the moment when you are going to use it. — *Griffin's Chem. Recreations.*

Elastic Tube Making. Take a piece of the sheet rubber, 1 or 1½ inches long, and a little more than three times as wide as you intend the tube to be. Take a glass rod rather smaller than the intended

caoutchouc tube, fold a slip of paper round the glass rod, and over it the piece of caoutchouc, previously softened by warming before the fire. Fold the two edges together, and cut off the double projecting edges by a pair of scissors, so as to produce two parallel straight edges. Put the two clean surfaces thus produced face to face, being careful not to let the fingers, or any thing else, touch them. Press the two faces together by the thumb nails, and finally press the seam from end to end with the flat part of the thumb nail. The junction is then effected and the tube complete. But if the fingers or any dirt is allowed to touch the clean cut surfaces of the rubber, they cannot be made to unite by pressure. After you have withdrawn the glass rod and the slip of paper from the rubber tube, you are to smear its inner surface with flour or fine ashes, to prevent the subsequent sticking together of its sides, which is otherwise liable to take place. — *Ib.*

Cutting Glass. Dissolve in spirits of turpentine as much camphor gum as the liquid will hold in solution by the aid of moderate heat — a common file dipped into the solution and applied to glass, will cut it with nearly the same facility as iron.

Specific Gravity of Essential and other Oils.

Oil of	Anise-seed,	0.9958
" "	Bergamot,	0.885
" "	Cajeput,	0.948
" "	Caraway,	0.975
" "	Cassia,	1.071
" "	Cinnamon,	1.035
" "	Cloves,	1.061
" "	Fennel,	0.997
" "	Juniper,	0.911
" "	Lavender,	0.898
" "	Lemons,	0.8517
" "	Nutmegs,	0.948
" "	Peppermint,	0.899
" "	Roses, (Ottar of Roses,)	0.832
" "	Rosemary,	0.85

Oils of Fermented Liquors.

Oil of	Grain Spirits,	0.835
" "	Potato Spirits,	0 821

TABLE.

The following are the results obtained by a commission appointed by the Parisian Academy of Sciences to examine the elastic force of vapor.* They were obtained by experiment up to a pressure of 25 atmospheres, and at higher pressures by calculation.

Elasticity of the vap. taking atmospheric press. as unity.	Temperature according to Fahr.	Elasticity of the vap. taking atmospheric press. as unity.	Temperature according to Fahr.
1	212°	13	380.66°
$1\frac{1}{2}$	233.96	14	386.94
2	250.52	15	392.86
$2\frac{1}{2}$	263.84	16	398.48
3	275.18	17	403.32
$3\frac{1}{2}$	285.08	18	408.02
4	293.72	19	413.78
$4\frac{1}{2}$	300.28	20	418.46
5	307.5	21	422.96
$5\frac{1}{2}$	314.24	22	427.28
6	320.36	23	431.42
$6\frac{1}{2}$	326.26	24	435.56
7	331.70	25	439.34
$7\frac{1}{2}$	336.86	30	457.16
8	341.78	35	472.73
9	350.78	40	486.59
10	358.88	45	491.14
11	366.85	50	510.60
12	374.00		

* Brande's Jour N. S. viii. 191

GLOSSARY.

A.

ABSORPTION, from *absorbeo*, to suck up; the power or act of imbibing a fluid.

ACETIC ACID, from *acetum*, vinegar; the acidifying principle of common vinegar.

ACICULAR, from *acus*, a needle; having sharp points like needles.

ACTION, from ἄγω, to move; the effort by which one body produces, or endeavors to produce, motion in another.

ADHESION, -IVE, from *ad*, to, and *hæreo*, to stick; the tendency which dissimilar bodies have to adhere or stick together.

AERATION, from ἀὴρ, the air; the saturation of a liquid with air.

AERIFORM, from *aer*, the air, and *forma*, a form; having the form of air.

AEROSTATION, from ἀὴρ, the air, and ἵστημι, to weigh; primarily, it denotes the science of weights suspended in the air; but, in the modern application of the term, it signifies the art of navigating the air.

AFFINITY, from *ad*, to, and *finis*, a boundary; relationship; the force which causes dissimilar particles of matter to combine together, so as to form new matter.

ALBUMEN, -INOUS, from *albumen*, the white of an egg; an important animal principle. The white of an egg is albumen mixed with water.

ALKALI, a soluble body, with a hot, caustic taste, which possesses the power of destroying acidity; the term is derived from *kali*, the Arabic name of a plant, from the ashes of which one species is obtained, and the article *al*.

AMALGAM, from ἅμα, together, and γαμέω, to marry; a chemical term, signifying the union of any metal with mercury, which is a solvent of various metals.

AMORPHOUS, from ἄ, not, and μορφή, a form; not possessing regular form.

ANALYSIS, from ἀνά, thoroughly, and λύω, to loosen; the separation of a whole into parts.

ANGLE, from *angulus*, a corner; the inclination of two straight lines to each other, which meet together, but are not in the same straight line.

ANHYDROUS, from ἄ, not, and ὕδωρ, water; containing no water.

ANION, from ἀνά, up, and εἶμι, to go; that which goes up; a substance which in electrolysis passes to the anode.

ANODE, from ἀνά, up, and ὁδός, a way; the way which the sun rises, the surface at which the electricity passes into a body, supposing the currents to move in the apparent direction of the sun.

ANTISEPTIC, from ἀντί, against, and σήπω, to make rotten; possessing the power of preventing putrefaction

APPROXIMATE, -IVELY, from *ad*, to, and *proximus*, nearest; having affinity with; bordering upon.

AQUA REGIA, i. e., REGAL WATER, a mixture of nitric and muriatic acids; so called from its property of dissolving gold, held by the alchemists to be *the king of the metals*.

AQUEO, from *aqua*, water; when prefixed to a word, denotes that water enters into the composition of the substance which it signifies.

ARC, from *arcus*, a bow; a part of a curved line, as of a circle, ellipse, &c.

ARMATURE, from *armo*, to arm; a piece of soft iron applied to a loadstone, or connecting the poles of a horseshoe magnet.

ASTATIC NEEDLE, from ἄστατος, balanced; a double magnetic needle, not affected by the earth's magnetism.

ASTRONOMY, from ἄστρον, a star, and νόμος, a law or rule; the science which treats of the heavenly bodies, their motions, periods, &c., and the causes on which they depend.

ATHERMANOUS, from ἄ, not, and θέρμος, heat; that through which heat will not pass is said to be athermanous.

ATMOSPHERE, -IC, from ἀτμὸς, vapor, and σφαῖρα, a sphere; the sphere of air which surrounds the globe.

ATOM, -IC, from ἄ, not, and τέμνω, to cut; a minute particle, not susceptible of further division.

ATTRACTION, -IVE, from *ad*, to, and *traho*, to draw; the tendency which bodies have to approach each other.

AUSTRAL, from *auster*, the south; southern.

AXIS, in geometry; the straight line in a plane figure, about which it revolves to produce or generate a solid; more generally, the right line conceived to be drawn from the vertex of a figure to the middle of the base.

B.

BAROMETER, -RICAL, from βάρος, weight, and μέτρον, a measure; an instrument for measuring the varying weight of the atmosphere.

BIBULOUS, from *bibo*, to drink; that which has the quality of drinking in moisture.

BINARY, from *bis*, twice; containing two units.

BOREAL, from *boreas*, the north; northern.

C.

CALORIMETER, from *calor*, heat, and *metrum*, a measure; an instrument for measuring caloric.

CAPILLARY, from *capillus*, a hair; resembling or having the form of hairs.

CAPSULE, from *capsula*, a little chest; a small, shallow cup.

CARBON, from *carbo*, a coal; the chemical name for charcoal.

CATALYSIS, from κατὰ, thoroughly, and λύω, to loosen; an imaginary force, which is supposed to assist the decomposition of some bodies, and the composition of others.

CATHODE, from κατὰ, downward, and ὁδὸς, a way; the way which the sun sets; the surface at which electricity passes out of a body, supposing the current to move in the apparent direction of the sun.

CATION, from κατὰ, down, and εἶμι, to go; that which goes down; a substance which in electrolysis passes to the cathode.

CAUSTIC, from καίω, to burn · possessing the power of burning.

CHEMISTRY, -ICAL, from an Arabic word, signifying the knowledge of the substance or constitution of bodies; the science whose object it is to examine the constitution of bodies.

CIRCUMFERENCE, -TIAL, from *circum*, around, and *fero*, to bear; the line which is the boundary of a circle.

CLEAVAGE, PLANE OF; the plane in which crystals have a tendency to separate.

COHESION, -IVE, from *con*, together, and *hæreo*, to stick; the relation among the component parts of a body, by which they cling together.

COMBUSTION, from *comburo*, to burn; the disengagement of light and heat which accompanies chemical combination.

CONCAVE, from *concavus*, hollow; curved inwardly, or hollow.

CONDUCTION, from *con*, together, and *duco*, to lead. The power of transmitting caloric, without change in the relative position of the particles of the conducting body.

CONE, -ICAL, and -IC; a solid figure, having a circular base, and its other extremity or vertex terminated by a point.

CONGELATION, from *con*, together, and *gelo*, to freeze; the process of freezing.

CONGERIES, from *congeries*, a heap; a mass of bodies heaped up together.

CONSTITUENT, from *constituo*, to put together; that of which any thing consists or is made up.

CONTACT, from *con*, together, and *tango*, to touch; the relative state of two things which touch one another, but do not cut.

CONTRACTION, from *con*, together, and *traho*, to draw; the state of being drawn into a narrow compass.

CONVERGENT, from *con*, together, and *vergo*, to bend; tending to one point from various parts.

CONVECTION, from *con*, together, and *veho*, to carry; the power in fluids of transmitting heat or electricity by currents.

CONVEX, from *con*, together, and *veho*, to carry; curved outwardly, or protuberant.

CORPUSCULAR, from *corpus*, a body; composed of or relating to atoms.

CORUSCATION, from *corusco*, to flash or shine; a flash, or quick vibration of light.

CRUCIBLE, from *crux*, *crucis*, a cross; a little pot, such as goldsmiths melt their gold in; so called from having a cross impressed upon it.

CRYOPHORUS, from κρι'ος, cold, and φέρω, to produce; an instrument for showing the relation between evaporation at low temperatures and the production of cold.

CRYSTALOGRAPHY, from κρι'σταλλος, a crystal, and γράφω, to describe; the science which treats of crystals.

CRYSTAL, -LINE, from κρι'σταλλος, ice; a substance having a regular form, as rock-crystal, which resembles ice.

CRYSTALLIZATION; the formation of crystals during the passage of certain bodies from a fluid to a solid form.

CUBE, -IC; a solid figure, contained by six equal squares.

D.

DECOMPOSITION; the resolution of a compound body into its component parts.

DECREMENT, from *decresco*, to grow less; the quantity by which any thing decreases or becomes less.

DEFLAGRATION, from *deflagro*, to burn ; burning.

DEFLECTION, from *de*, from, and *flecto*, to bend ; a turning aside out of the straight way.

DEGREE, from *de*, down, and *gradus*, a step ; a quantity in measurement — as, in geometry, the 360th part of the circumference of a circle.

DELIQUESCENCE, from *deliqueo*, to melt ; a gradual melting, caused by the absorption of water from the atmosphere.

DENSITY, from *densus*, thick ; vicinity or closeness of particles.

DEPHLOGISTICATED ; deprived of phlogiston, the supposed principle of inflammability.

DETONATION, from *detono*, to thunder ; explosion, accompanied with noise.

DIAMETER, from διὰ, through, and μέτρον, a measure ; the line which passes through the centre of a circle, or of any other curvilinear figure.

DIAPHANOUS, from διὰ, through, and φαίνω, to shine ; that which allows a passage to the rays of light.

DIATHERMANOUS, from διὰ, through, and θέρμος, heat ; that through which heat will pass is said to be diathermanous.

DILATATION, from *differo*, to bear apart ; the act of extending into greater space.

DIMORPHOUS, from δὶς, twice, and μορφή, a form ; having two forms.

DISC, from *discus*, a quoit ; the apparent surface of a heavenly body.

DISINTEGRATION, from *dis*, meaning separation, and *integer*, whole ; an utter separation of particles.

DISPERSION, -IVE, from *di*, in different directions, and *spargo*, to scatter ; the act of scattering.

DISRUPTION, from *dis*, in different directions, and *rumpo*, to break ; the act of tearing asunder.

DISSECTION, from *disseco*, to cut to pieces ; the act of separating into pieces.

DISTILLATION ; separation drop by drop ; the process by which a fluid is separated from another substance, by first being converted into vapor, and afterward condensed drop by drop.

DIVELLENT, from *divello*, to tear asunder ; that which causes separation.

DIVERGENT, from *di*, in different directions, and *vergo*, to bend ; tending to various parts from one point.

DODECAHEDRON, from δώδεκα, twelve, and ἕδρα, a base or side ; a solid figure contained by twelve equal sides.

DYNAMICS, -ICAL, from δύναμις, power ; that branch of mechanical science which treats of moving powers, and of the action of forces on solid bodies, when the result of that action is motion.

E.

EBULLITION, from *ebullio*, to boil , the act of boiling.

EFFLORESCENCE, from *effloresco*, to blow, as a flower ; the formation of small crystals on the surfaces of bodies, in consequence of the abstraction of moisture from them by the atmosphere.

ELASTICITY, -IC, from ἐλαύνω, to push or thrust ; the property bodies possess of resuming their original form when pressure is removed.

ELECTRODE, from ἤλεκτρον, electricity, and ὁδός, a way ; the point at which an electric current enters or quits the body through which it passes.

ELECTROGRAPHY, from ἤλεκτρον and γράφω; a method of copying meaals, copperplate, &c., by galvanism.

ELECTROLYSIS, -LYTE, &c., from ἤλεκτρον, electricity, and λύω, to loosen; the act of decomposing bodies by electricity.

ELECTRO-MAGNETISM; magnetism produced by electricity.

ELECTROMETER; an instrument for ascertaining the quality and quantity of electricity in electrified bodies.

ELECTROPHORUS; an instrument for producing electricity.

ELECTROSCOPE; an instrument for exhibiting the attractive and repulsive agencies of electricity.

ELEMENT, -ARY, from *elementum*, an element; that which cannot be resolved into two or more parts. and contains but one kind of ponderable matter.

ELLIPSE, from ἐκ, deficiently, and λείπω, to leave; one of the conic sections, formed by the intersection of a plane and a cone, when the plane makes a less angle with the base than that formed by the base and the side of the cone.

EMPIRICAL, from ἐν, in, and πειράομαι, to make trial; that which is made or is done as an experiment, independently of hypothesis or theory.

EMPYREUMATIC, from ἐν, in, and πῦρ, fire; having the taste or smell of burned animal or vegetable substances.

ENDOSMOSE, from ἔνδον, within, and ὠσμός, the act of pushing; a flowing from the outside to the inside.

EPIDERMIS, from ἐπί, upon, and δέρμα, the skin; the exterior layer of the skin.

EQUILIBRIUM, from *æquus*, equal, and *libra*, a balance; the state of rest produced by forces equally balancing one another.

EQUIVALENT, from *æquus*, equal, and *valeo*, to be worth; equal in value.

ETIOLATION; the blanching of vegetables by exclusion from light.

EVAPORATION, from *e*, out, and *vapor*, vapor; the conversion of a liquid into vapor.

EXOSMOSE, from ἔξω, without, and ὠσμός, the act of pushing; a flowing from the inside to the outside.

EXPANSION, from *expando*, to open out; the enlargement or increase in the bulk of bodies, which is produced by heat.

EXPERIENCE, from *experior*, to attempt, to try; knowledge gained by observatior

EXPERIMENT; omething done in order to discover an uncertain or unknown effect.

EXPLOSION, from *ex*, out, and *plaudo*, to utter a sound; a sudden expansion of an elastic fluid, with force and a loud report.

F.

FERRUGINOUS, from *ferrum*, iron; of iron.

FILTER; a strainer.

FILTRATION; the process whereby liquids are strained.

FLEXURE, from *flecto*, to bend; the act of bending; also, the bend or curve of a line or figure.

FOCUS, -CAL, from *focus*, a fireplace; a point in which a number of rays of light or heat meet, after being refracted or reflected

FORMULA; a general theorem; it is called algebraic, logarithmic, &c., according to the branch of mathematics to which it relates.

FRICTION, from *frico*, to rub; the rubbing or grating of the surfaces of

bodies upon one another; also, the retarding force caused by this rubbing of surfaces together.

G.

GALVANISM, from Professor GALVANI; current electricity is sometimes so called.

GALVANOMETER; an instrument for measuring galvanism.

GAS, -EOUS; a term first introduced by VAN HELMONT; a permanent, aeriform fluid.

GELATINOUS, from *gelo*, to freeze; resembling jelly.

GONIOMETER, from γωνία, an angle, and μέτρον, a measure; an instrument for measuring angles.

GRAVITATION, from *gravis*, heavy; the abstract power which draws bodies towards each other's centres.

GRAVITY, from *gravis*, heavy; the natural tendency of bodies to fall towards a centre.

GRAVITY, SPECIFIC; the relative gravity of a body considered with regard to some other body, which is assumed as a standard of comparison.

H.

HALO, from ἅλως, a crown; a luminous circle, appearing occasionally around the heavenly bodies, but more especially about the sun and moon.

HELIOGRAPHIC, from ἥλιος, the sun, and γράφω, to write; delineated by the sun.

HELIX, from ἑλίσσω, to twist round; a screw or spiral.

HEMISPHERE, from ἥμισυς, half, and σφαῖρα, a sphere; the half of a sphere, formed by a plane passing through the centre.

HERMETIC SEAL; when the neck of a glass vessel or tube is heated to the melting point, and then twisted with pincers until it be air-tight, the vessel or tube is said to be hermetically sealed, or to have received the seal of Hermes, the reputed inventor of chemistry.

HETEROGENEOUS, from ἕτερος, different, and γένος, kind; different in nature and properties.

HOMOGENEOUS, from ὁμός, alike, and γένος, kind; alike in nature and properties.

HORIZONTAL, from ὁρίζω, to bound or terminate; parallel to the horizon.

HYDRATE, from ὕδωρ, water; any uncrystallized substance which contains water in a fixed, definite proportion.

HYDRO, when prefixed to the name of a chemical substance, denotes that hydrogen enters into the composition of the substance which it signifies.

HYDROMETER, from ὕδωρ, water, and μέτρον, a measure; an instrument for comparing the density and gravity of liquids with water.

HYDROSTATICS, from ὕδωρ, water, and στατὸς, standing; that branch of natural philosophy which treats of the pressure and equilibrium of non-elastic fluids, and also of the weight, pressure, &c., of solids immersed in them.

HYGROMETER, from ὑγρὸς, moist, and μέτρον, a measure; an instrument for ascertaining accurately the quantity of moisture in the atmosphere.

HYGROSCOPE, from ὑγρὸς, moist, and σκοπέω, to consider; an instrument for exhibiting approximatively the moisture of the atmosphere.

Hypo, from ὑπό, under; when prefixed to a word, denotes an inferior quantity of some ingredient which enters into the composition of the substance which it signifies.

Hypothesis, -tical, from ὑπό, under, and τίθημι, to place; a principle supposed or taken for granted in order to prove a point in question.

I.

Impinging, from *impingo*, to strike against; dashing against.

Incandescent, from *incandesco*, to grow white; white or glowing with heat.

Incidence, from *in*, upon, and *cado*, to fall; the direction in which one body falls on or strikes another; the angle which the moving body makes with the plane of the body struck, is called the "angle of incidence."

Increment, from *incresco*, to increase; the quantity by which any thing increases or becomes greater.

Induction, -ive, from *in*, to, and *duco*, to lead; the process of reasoning, by which we are led from general to particular truths.

Induction, Electrical; the effect produced by the tendency of an insulated electrified body to excite an opposite electric state in neighboring bodies.

Inductometer; an instrument for measuring electrical induction.

Inertia, from *inertia*, inactivity; the disposition of matter to remain in its state of rest or motion

Inflammable, from *in*, and *flamma*, a flame; capable of burning with a flame.

Inflection, from *in*, to, and *flecto*, to bend.

Insulation, from *insula*, an island; when a body, containing a quantity of free heat, or of electricity, is surrounded by non-conductors, it is said to be *insulated*.

Integrant, from *integer*, whole, entire; those parts of a body which are of the same nature with the whole, are called integrant.

Interstices, from *interstitium*, a break or interval; the unoccupied spaces between the molecules of bodies.

Iridescent, from *iris*, the rainbow; marked with the colors of the rainbow.

Isomeric, from ἴσος, equal, and μέρος, a part; substances which consist of the same ingredients, in the same proportion, and yet differ essentially in their properties, are called isomeric.

Isomerism; that portion of chemical science which treats of isomeric substances.

J.

Juxtaposition, from *juxta*, near, and *pono*, to place; the placing of one thing close to another.

L.

Laminæ, from *lamina*, a thin plate; extremely thin plates, of which some solid bodies are composed.

Lens, from *lens*, a bean; properly a small glass in the form of a bean but more generally it means a piece of glass, or other transparent substance, having its two surfaces so formed that the rays of light, in passing through it, have their direction changed, and are made to diverge or converge, or to become parallel after diverging or converging.

Levigation, from *lævis*, smooth; the art of reducing to a light powder.

LIQUEFACTION, from *liquefacio*, to make liquid, the process of convert
ing into a liquid state.

LITMUS; a blue pigment obtained from the *lichen rocella;* it is a most
delicate test of acids, which turn it red.

LOADSTONE, i.e., LEADSTONE; an ore of iron having magnetic properties

M.

MAGNET, from *Magnesia*, a town in Asia Minor; artificial magnets are
small bars of steel or iron, which, when placed at liberty, turn one
end to the north.

MAGNETISM; the peculiar property possessed by certain ferruginous
bodies, whereby, under certain circumstances, they attract and re-
pel one another according to certain laws.

MAGNETO-ELECTRICITY; electricity produced by magnetism.

MALLEABLE, from *malleus*, a hammer; that which is capable of being
spread by beating.

MAXIMUM, from *maximus*, greatest; the greatest value of a variable
quantity.

MECHANICS, from μηχανή, a machine; the science which treats of the
laws of the rest and motion of bodies.

METALLURGY, from μέταλλον, a metal, and ἔργον, a work; the art of
working metals, and separating them from their ores.

MINERALOGY; the science which treats of bodies not being vegetable
or animal.

MOIRÉE METALLIQUE, from *moirée*, a watered silk; when tin plates are
washed over with a weak acid, the crystalline texture of the tin
becomes apparent, forming a crystalline appearance, which has been
called Moirée Métallique.

MOLECULES, -AR, a diminutive from *moles*, a mass; the infinitely small
material particles of which bodies are conceived to be aggregations.

MOMENTUM, from *moveo*, to move; the product of the numbers which
represent the quantity of matter and the velocity of a body, is
called its momentum or quantity of motion.

MUCILAGINOUS; resembling mucilage or gum.

MULTIPLE, from *multiplico*, to render manifold; a quantity is said to be
a multiple of another when it contains that other quantity a certain
number of times without a remainder.

N.

NASCENT, from *nascor*, to be born; in the moment of formation.

NEGATIVE, from *nego*, to deny; quantities to which the sign of subtrac-
tion, or negative sign, is prefixed, are called negative quantities;
this sign is also used to denote operations which are the reverse
of those denoted by the positive sign.

NODES, -AL, from *nodus*, a knot; in the doctrine of curves, a node is a
small oval figure made by the intersection of one branch of a curve
with another.

NORMAL, from *norma*, a rule; according to rule.

NUCLEUS, from *nucleus*, a kernel; the central parts of a body, which are
supposed to be firmer, and separated from the other parts, as the
kernel of a nut is from the shell; also, the point about which mat-
ter is collected.

O.

OBLATE, from *ob*, in front of, and *latus*, broad; flattened or short-
ened.

OBLONG, from *ob*, in front of, and *longus*, long ; greater in length than in breadth.

OCTOHEDRON, -AL, from ὀκτώ, eight, and ἕδρα, a side ; a solid figure contained by eight equal and equilateral triangles.

OLEFIANT GAS from *oleum*, oil, and *fio*, to become ; a colorless, tasteless gas, which derives its name from its property of forming an oil-like liquid with chlorine.

OPTICS, from ὄπτομαι, to see ; that branch of natural philosophy which treats of vision, and of the nature and properties of light, and of the various changes it undergoes.

ORGANIC MATTER, from ὄργανον, an organ ; when matter possesses organs, or organized parts for sustaining living action, as animals and plants, it is called organic.

ORGANIZATION ; construction in which the parts are so disposed as to be subservient to each other.

OSCILLATION, from *oscillor*, to swing ; the vibration or reciprocal ascent and descent of a pendulum.

OXIDE ; a combination with oxygen, not being acid.

OXIDIZABLE ; capable of being converted into an oxide.

OXYGEN, from ὀξὺς, acid, and γεννάω, to produce ; a colorless, aeriform fluid, which was formerly supposed to be the universal acidifying principle.

P.

PARABOLA, from παρὰ, parallel to, and βάλλω, to place ; one of the conic sections, formed by the intersection of a plane and a cone, when the plane passes parallel to the side of the cone.

PARALLEL ; a term applied in geometry to lines and planes, which are every where equidistant from one another ; straight lines, which, if infinitely produced, never meet, are called parallel straight lines.

PARALLELOGRAM ; a four-sided figure, of which the opposite sides are parallel and equal.

PARALLELOPIPEDON ; a solid figure contained by six parallelograms, the opposite sides of which are equal and parallel.

PELLICLE, a diminutive from *pellis*, a skin or crust ; a thin crust formed on the surface of a solution by evaporization.

PENDULUM, from *pendeo*, to hang ; a heavy body so suspended that it may vibrate, or swing backward and forward about some fixed point, by the action of gravity.

PERCOLATE, from *per*, through, and *colo*, to strain ; to strain through.

PERMEATE, from *permeo*, to pass through ; to penetrate.

PERPENDICULAR ; the straight line which, standing upon another straight line, makes the adjacent angles equal, and consequently right angles, is said to be perpendicular to the line upon which it stands.

PHENOMENON, from φαίνομαι, to appear ; an appearance.

PHILOSOPHY, -ICAL, from φιλέω, to love, and σοφία, wisdom ; the study or knowledge of nature or morality, founded on reason and experience, the word originally implying " a love of wisdom."

PHLOGISTON, from φλέγω, to burn ; a name given by the older chemists to an imaginary substance, which was considered as the principle of inflammability.

PHOSGENE, from φῶς, light, and γεννάω, to produce ; produced by light.

PHOSPHORUS, from φῶς, light, and φέρω, to produce ; a highly inflammable substance, obtained from calcined bones, which emits light when placed in the dark.

PHOTOMETER, from φῶς, light, and μέτρον, a measure ; an instrument for measuring the different intensities of light.

PHYSIOLOGY, -ICAL, from φύσις, nature, and λόγος, an account ; the science which treats of the structure of living beings.

PNEUMATICS, from πνεῦμα, air ; that branch of natural philosophy which treats of the weight, pressure, and elasticity of aeriform fluids

POLARITY ; the opposition of two equal forces in bodies, similar to that which confers the tendency of magnetized bodies to point to the magnetic poles.

POLARIZATION ; the communication of the above opposition of forces.

POLARIZED LIGHT ; light which, by reflection or refraction at a certain angle, or by refraction in certain crystals, has acquired the property of exhibiting opposite effects in planes at right angles to each other, is said to be polarized.

POLES OF A MAGNET ; points in a magnet where the intensity of the magnetic force is a maximum ; one of these attracts, and another repels, the same pole of another magnet.

PORES, from πόρος, a passage ; the small interstices between the solid particles of bodies.

PRECIPITATION, from *præcipito*, to fall suddenly ; the separation of a solid from a liquid ; a triangular glass solid used for the separation of rays of light by refraction.

PROJECTILE, from *pro*, forward, and *jacio*, to throw ; a heavy body projected, or cast forward into space, by any external force.

PROPORTION ; the relation of equality subsisting between two ratios.

PYROMETER, from πῦρ, fire, and μέτρον, a measure ; an instrument for measuring higher degrees of temperature than can be ascertained by a thermometer.

PYROXYLIC SPIRIT, from πῦρ, fire, and ὀξύς, acid ; a colorless, transparent spirit, obtained by the destructive distillation of wood.

PYRO ; when prefixed to a word, denotes that the substance which it signifies has been formed at a high temperature.

PHOTOGRAPHY, from φως, light, and γραφω, to write ; writing with the sun's rays.

Q.

QUADRANT ; the fourth part of the circumference of a circle.

R.

RADIATION, from *radius*, a ray ; the shooting forth in all directions from a centre.

RADICAL, from *radix*, a root ; the original principle of a compound.

RADIUS ; the straight line drawn from the centre to the circumference of a circle.

RAREFACTION, from *rarus*, rare, and *facio*, to make ; the act of causing a substance to become less dense ; it also denominates the state of this lessened density.

RATIO ; the relation which subsists between two quantities of the same kind, the comparison being made by considering what multiple part or parts one of them is of the other.

RAY ; a beam of light propagated from a radiant point.

REACTION ; the reciprocation of any impulse, or force impressed, made by the body on which such impression is made. Reaction is always equal to action.

RECTANGLE, from *rectus*, right, and *angulus*, an angle ; a four-sided plane

figure, in which all the angles are right angles, and its opposite sides equal and parallel.

RECTIFICATION; the process of drawing any thing off by distillation, in order to make it more pure and refined.

RECTILINEAR; consisting of, or bounded by, straight lines.

REFLECTION, from *re*, back, and *flecto*, to bend; the act of bending back; when rays of light fall on the surfaces of bodies, part of them are thrown back or reflected.

REFRACTION, from *re*, back, and *frango*, to break; the deviation of rays of light from their direct course, when passing through media of different densities.

REFRANGIBLE; susceptible of refraction.

REFRIGERATION, from *re*, again, and *frigo*, to cool; the act of cooling.

REPULSION, from *re*, back, and *pello*, to drive; that property in certain bodies whereby they mutually tend to recede and fly off from each other.

RETORT, from *re*, back, and *torqueo*, to twist; a vessel with a bent neck, which is made use of in chemical operations.

RHOMBUS; a figure which has all its sides equal, but its angles are not right angles.

RHOMBOHEDRON; a solid figure, whose sides are composed of rhombs.

RHOMBOID; a figure which has its opposite sides equal, but all its angles are not equal, neither are all its angles right angles.

S.

SALIFIABLE BASES, from *sal*, salt, and *fio*, to become; bodies capable of combining with acids to form salts.

SATURATION, -ATED, from *satur*, full; the solution of one body in another until the receiving body can contain no more.

SCALE, from *scala*, a ladder; an instrument in which a line is divided into small and equal parts, and which is applied for the purpose of ascertaining the relative dimensions of other lengths not so divided.

SECTION, from *seco*, to cut; a cutting, or part separated from the whole.

SEGMENT OF A CIRCLE; any portion cut off by a straight line.

SINE; the straight line drawn from one extremity of an arc, perpendicular to the radius which passes through the other extremity.

SOLUTION, from *solvo*, to loosen; in chemical language, any fluid that contains another substance dissolved in and intimately mixed with it.

SOLVENT; any substance which will dissolve another.

SPECIFIC, from *species*, a particular sort or kind; that which denominates any property which is not general, but is confined to an individual or species.

SPECTRUM; the colored image formed on a white surface by rays of light passing through a hole, and being refracted by a glass prism.

SPHERE; the solid figure formed by the rotation of a semicircle about its diameter.

SPHEROID, -AL; a solid figure, formed by the revolution of an ellipse about one of its axes; hence it is sometimes called an ellipsoid; the spheroid will be oblate or prolate, according as the revolution is performed about the minor or major axis of the ellipse.

STATICS, -ICAL, from στατὸς, standing; that branch of mechanical science which treats of the equilibrium, pressure, weight, &c., of solid bodies when at rest.

STRATUM, from *sterno*, to strew; a layer.

SYMMETRY, -ICAL, from σύν, together, and μέτρον, a measure; conformity of measure.

SYNTHESIS, from σύν, together, and τίθημι, to place; the composition of a whole from its parts; in mathematics, the process of reasoning out new principles from those already established.

SUBLIMATION, from *sublimis,* high; the act of raising into vapor by means of heat, and condensing in the upper part of a vessel.

SYNCHRONOUS, from σύν, together, and χρόνος, time; performed in the same time.

T.

TACTILE, from *tango,* to touch; of or relating to touch.

TANGENT, -IAL; the line which touches a circle or any other curve, but does not cut it.

TERNARY, from *ter,* thrice; containing three units.

TETRAHEDRON, from τέσσαρες, four, and ἕδρα, a base or side; a solid figure contained by four equal and equilateral triangles.

THEORY, -ETICAL, from θεωρία, a view; a collected view of all that is known on any subject into one.

THERMO-ELECTRICITY; electricity produced by heat.

THERMOMETER, from θέρμος, heat, and μέτρον, a measure; an instrument for measuring the degrees of heat.

THERMOSCOPE, from θέρμος, heat, and σκοπέω, to view; an instrument for exhibiting the powers of heat.

TIRE; a hoop of iron used to bend and receive the felly of a wheel.

TORSION, FORCE OF, from *torqueo,* to twist; a term applied by Coulomb to denote the effort made by a thread which has been twisted to untwist itself.

TRANSPARENT; a term to denote the quality of a substance which not only admits the passage of light, but also of the vision of external objects.

TRITURATED, from *trituro,* to thrash; reduced to powder.

TRUNCATION, from *truncus,* cut short; the cutting off a portion of a solid, as of the solid angle of a crystal.

U.

UNDULATION, from *unda,* a wave; a formation of waves.

UNIAXAL, from *unus,* one, and *axis,* an axis; having but one axis.

V.

VACUUM, Latin; a space empty and devoid of all matter.

VENTILATION, from *ventus,* wind; the supply of fresh air.

VERNIER; an instrument invented by Vernier; it consists of a small, movable scale, running parallel to the fixed scale of a quadrant or other instrument, and having the effect of subdividing the divisions of the instrument into more minute parts.

VIBRATION, from *vibro,* to brandish; the regular reciprocating motion of a body, as of a pendulum, &c.; a motion to and fro.

VOLUME, from *volumen,* a roll; the apparent space occupied by a body

W.

WEIGHT; the pressure which a body exerts vertically downward in consequence of the action of gravity.

Z.

ZERO; the numeral 0, which fills the blank between the ascending and descending numbers in a series.

INDEX.

INDEX OF FIGURES.

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